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Designed to accompany an inservice teacher training program, this comprehensive syllabus presents 12 lessons on behavior problems which each include (with the exception of the first and last lessons) a narrative presentation of instructional material, a relevant case study with treatment, and a selected bibliography. The first lesson serves as an introduction to the syllabus and contains procedural information to be used in the course (such as conference procedures and sociometric techniques). The next 10 lessons attempt to make the teacher aware of the need for building a curriculum which is adjusted to pupil individual differences, the importance of analyzing and understanding peer relationships, the effects of student achievement of parental attitudes toward school, factors which influence the development of (and the ways in which teachers can help to foster positive self-concepts in students, the effect of teacher-student relations in the school organization on student achievement, ways to analyze and create motivation in students, learning principles and ways to apply them, areas of intelligence testing, factors which influence student progress, and the relationship between physical development and school achievement. The final lesson is to be used for review. (SP)

A TEACHER INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM

(School Year 1968-1969)

"BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS IN THE CLASSROOM"

Regional Child Study Services
A Title III, ESEA Project
Price, Utah
October, 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Lesson 1 Orientation 1

Lesson 2 School Adjustment 7

Lesson 3 Adjustment With Peers 17

Lesson 4 Home and Family 25

Lesson 5 Self-Concept 35

Lesson 6 School and Community 43

Lesson 7 Motivational Considerations 52

Lesson 8 Learning and Change 59

Lesson 9 Intelligence and Intelligence Testing 64

Lesson 10 School Achievement 72

Lesson 11 Physical Growth and Development 79

Lesson 12 Summary and Evaluation 86

APPENDIXES

A. Case Study Form 87

B. Worksheet for Sociometric Data 88

C. Sociogram 89

Lesson #1

ORIENTATION

Introduction

It is suggested that the instructor introduce himself and orally provide a brief resume' of his training and background. The teachers should identify themselves and state the classes they teach and specific positions or responsibilities they hold.

Course Objectives

1. To help teachers to more effectively identify students with academic and behavioral problems.
2. To further develop teachers' skills in determining causal factors contributing to student problems and to clarify the meaning of information in assessment instruments and writeups by professionals.
3. To apply mental health principles in the classroom.
4. To engage in helping or therapeutic activities with the student.

Overview of the Program

The Teacher Inservice Training Program will meet for twelve two-and-one-half hour sessions. The lessons and their suggested order of presentation are as follows:

1. Registration and Orientation
2. School Adjustment
3. Adjustment With Peers
4. Home and Family
5. Self-Concept
6. School and Community
7. Motivational Considerations
8. Learning and Change
9. Intelligence and Intelligence Testing
10. School Achievement
11. Physical Growth and Development
12. Summary and Evaluation

Lesson Design

The basic lesson format in this syllabus is divided into three parts:

1. A narrative presentation of instructional material
2. A relevant case study
3. A selected bibliography

Instructional Information

(a) A brief statement of the subject material to be covered in the session.

(b) A set of questions embodying the essential objectives for the lesson.

(c) A narrative development, in response to the questions, of important concepts which should provide a basic understanding of the subject area.

A Paralleling Case Study

Data in the case study should include or provide for discussion:

(1) Identifying information -- name, age, grade, etc.

(2) What is the problem? An explanatory statement followed by pertinent information, such as, the family background, test scores, sociometric data and other information.

(3) What is causing the problem? Pertinent historical and current contributing factors.

(4) How can the child be helped? This should include things the teacher might do or try, the role the family can play, and contributions that other professionals can make.

Selected Bibliography

More depth in understanding and increased knowledge about each lesson is invited and encouraged for those who wish to gain more than can be covered in sessions during the course.

Because the lessons can give only an introduction to basic concepts, each lesson will provide some related bibliographical references to assist the teacher in further study of the topic under discussion.

Projects

The projects listed below should help teachers achieve the mentioned objectives:

1. Prepare three to five short case studies for discussion with the consultant during the bi-weekly conferences.
2. Preparation of a class sociogram.
3. Make one home visit.
4. Obtain some kind of self-report information from students.
5. Attempt to involve students who have problems in therapeutic kinds of activities, such as role playing.
6. Maintain anecdotal records as deemed appropriate.

Project Evaluation

The Regional Child Study Service (RCSS) is directing the teacher inservice training program and is providing personnel to supplement psychological and social work services in the five districts: Carbon, Emery, Grand, Juab, and San Juan.

The Regional Child Study Service is funded under Title III of the Elementary an Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and by the participating districts. This Act specifically states that a project so funded must evaluate its operations to determine its effectiveness. The RCSS Staff is interested in the effectiveness of its programs but, at the same time, doe not want to make the evaluation procedure burdensome on teachers and others who are involved. It has been determined that the evaluation of the Teachers' Inservice Training Pr gram can be limited to approximately fifty minutes of pre-tests at the beginning of the cour and by similar testing in the twelfth and final session. Within one or two months after the course is completed, a brief anonymous evaluation of the training program by the participat teachers will be requested. This questionnaire should take no more than twenty minutes to complete.

Conferencing Procedures

In order to provide consultation for problems in the classroom, it is suggested that individual appointments be set up between the teacher and training consultant on a bi-weekly basis for approximately twenty minutes. This provides an opportunity for the teache and consultant to discuss problems and to look at specific cases and relevant data that has been collected. At this time, a determination can be made whether further psychological or social work assessments are required. Those sessions also will provide an opportunity to discuss measures that might be taken to help the student in making a more healthy adjustment. On this kind of schedule, part of the teachers would see the consultant one week an the remainder would see him the following week. It may be helpful to establish these appoi ments on a regular basis to facilitate the scheduling of teacher substitutes.

Professional Ethics and Related Considerations

Teachers and behavioral science workers, as professionals, have certain obliga tions to their profession, to the individuals they work with, and to society. In this regard, the teacher has many responsibilities: to maintain certain academic standards and instructional competencies, and to assist the individual student to be a socially adjusted and personally responsible citizen.

Of primary concern in our work with students is the safeguarding of their rights to privacy. Information should be obtained from students only on a voluntary basis. One problem related to working with students is to provide teachers and other involved persons with technical reports and certain information without breeching confidentiality. Informatio about the student's problems and their causes facilitates teachers' understanding and helps them to initiate corrective action. While we have a responsibility to communicate pertinent information, all parties involved have the obligation to use it exclusively in a professional manner, and only with individuals who are professionally and directly involved.

We also have the responsibility of referring students to other professionals whe we realize that we are not qualified to work with the case. However, even when a client is referred, we are not relieved of responsibilities for engaging in therapeutic activities that will be beneficial to him.

Instances may arise in which confidential information must be released to protect the student or others; however, when this is necessary, the student should be informed before it is released with an explanation of the professional's obligation for the safety of others.

What is a Sociometric Technique?

A sociometric test is designed to measure the dynamic organization of a social group.[1] Several types of sociometric tests are in use. The most easily administered test requires an individual to select his companions for any group of which he is, or might become, a member. In this technique, a child may be asked to select first, second, and third choices of friends from among his classmates as friends or companions for one or more particular activities, such as a hiking trip, a party, or a study session, etc.

How Can Teachers Use Sociometric Techniques?

Sociometric devises are used by teachers and counselors, or group leaders, to provide insight about the structure of the group and to promote social adjustment of individual children.[2]

For older children, the information obtained can be used as a springboard for group discussion to develop insight on interpersonal relationships. It also can be used to place individual students in compatible situations for activities. A sociogram may be constructed to show graphically the information obtained from a sociometric test. It would reveal the "neglected and isolated" child as well as the "cliques" and "stars." A point scale may be used to show the most and least popular child in the group.

What is Social Acceptability?

"The social acceptability of a particular child is defined as that point on an acceptance-rejection continuum which he occupies by virtue of his associates' evaluation of him."[1] A high level of social acceptability is considered to be desirable because it allows for more social mobility. An individual may vary in level of acceptability in each group of which he is a member.

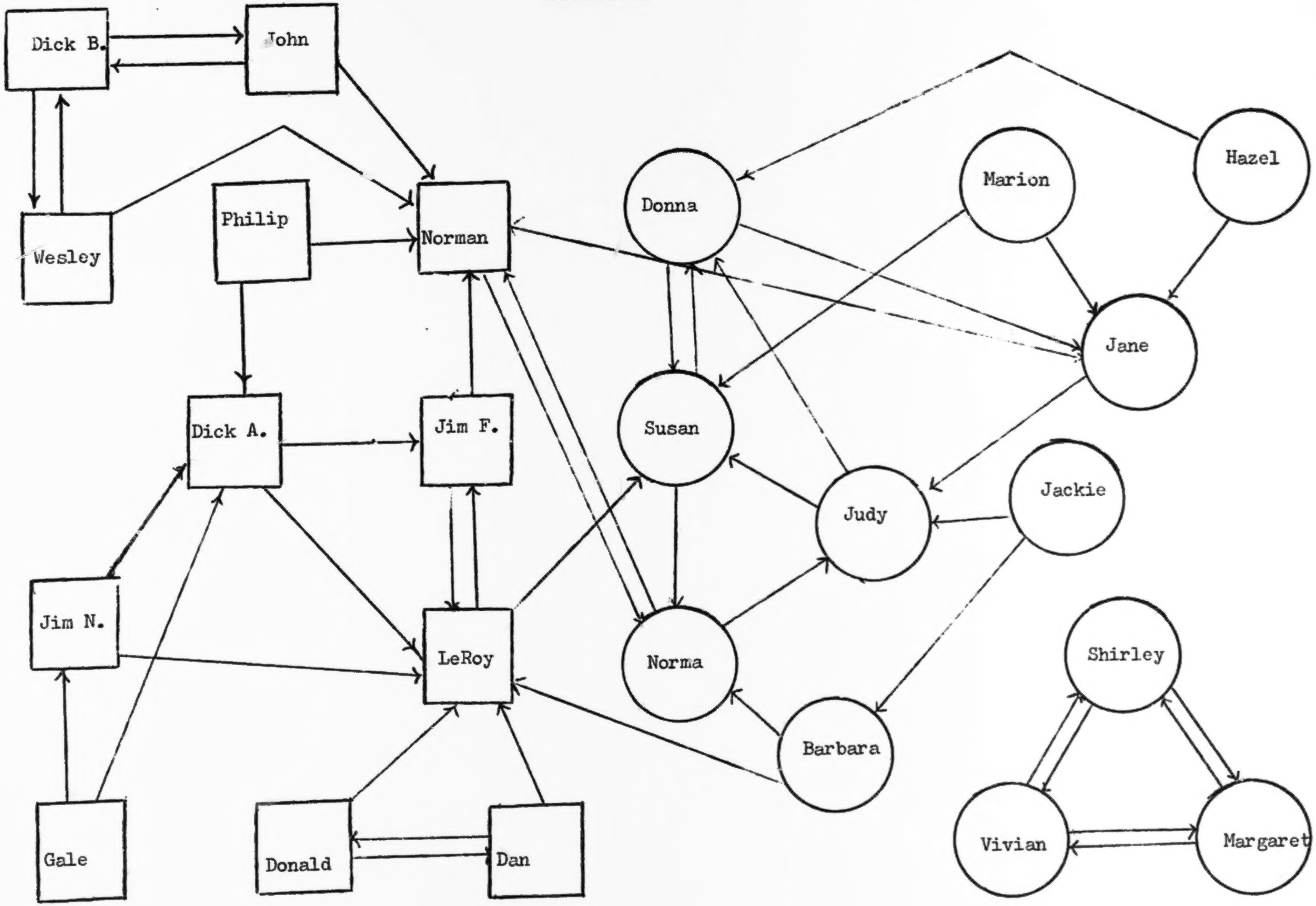
How is a Sociogram Used?

The figure on page five is an example of a sociogram from an eighth grade class. It shows a large amount of social cleavage between the girls and the boys. Only two choices are shown for each child. Numbers could be placed by each arrow leading away to show first, second or third choices. More choices could be shown. Scores from a point system could be entered by the child's name to better visualize the degree of social acceptability experienced by each child in the group. An effective point system will be presented by the instructor.

Several levels of acceptability and types of interaction may be seen on the sociogram. Norman, LeRoy, Susan, Judy and a few others enjoy the most acceptable social status. Each could be called a "star." John, Dan, and Barbara were chosen by only one other child and could be called "neglectee." Gale and Hazel are at the low end of the group socially and could be termed "social isolates." A mutual "triangle" and a "social island" can be seen between Shirley, Vivian and Margaret, who excluded all others from their clique.

In the group, the teacher or counselor readily can see social strengths and weaknesses in the sociogram as they existed at the time the sociometric test was administered. The teacher, counselor, psychologist and social worker should concentrate their efforts to learn why Hazel and Gale are socially isolated and to help bring about more social acceptability in their lives.

SOCIOGRAM


BOYS
GIRLS
Dick B.
John
Wesley
Philip
Norman
Dick A.
Jim F.
Jim N.
LeRoy
Gale
Donald
Dan
Donna
Susan
Norma
Marion
Hazel
Jane
Judy
Jackie
Barbara
Shirley
Vivian
Margaret

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(Suggestions for Further Reading)

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Lesson #2

SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

What is This Lesson About?

As teachers, we are interested in the child's ability to adjust to the school routine to conform to reasonable expectations; to interact smoothly with his peers, to avoid disruptive behavior which would interfere with his own and others' learning. But more than this, we are interested in his becoming a useful, constructive, and happy citizen. School is preparation for life. The child who is able to cope effectively with school situations generally will be able to meet the expectations of society in an effective, productive way. The child who is frustrated and unhappy in school may well become a frustrated, unhappy and non-productive adult. This lesson is directed to the question of how the teacher may facilitate the effective adjustment of children in school. Inherent in this topic of school adjustment also is the question of how the teacher and the school may effectively adjust to individual differences so as to maximize the learner's effectiveness.

> "In no other species are the differences between individuals so great as in the human race....On top of all the temperamental and anatomical differences....are differences in biochemical makeup and differences in general ability and special gifts—differences so great that they can almost be regarded as differences, not in degree, but in kind. To herd all these dissimilar creatures into one classroom and to subject them all to the same kind of intellectual, emotional, and ethical training seems, on the face of it, absurd. At the present time, unfortunately, it is very difficult, for practical reasons, to adopt any other course." (Huxley)

> "...when competent teachers are made aware of the individual differences that exist between children, they can and will individualize their approach to children." (Rosenberg)

The consequences of not harmonizing the curriculum to fit with the learner's competencies, needs, and interests (e.g., individual differences) are humorously reflected in the following fable:

"Fable of the Animal School"

> Once upon a time, the animals decided they must do something heroic to meet the problems of a "new world", so they organized a school. They adopted an activity curriculum consisting of running, climbing, swimming, and flying; and to make it easier to administer, all the animals took all the same subjects.
>
> The duck was excellent in swimming, better in fact than his instructor. He made passing grades in flying, but he was very poor in running. Since he was slow in running, he had to stay after school and drop swimming to practice running. This was kept up until his web feet were badly worn and he was only average in swimming. But average was acceptable in school, so nobody worried about that except the duck.
>
> The rabbit started at the top of his class in running, but had a nervous breakdown because of so much makeup work in swimming.

The squirrel was excellent in climbing until he developed frustration in the flying class where his teacher made him start from the ground up instead of from the treetop down. He also developed charlie horses from over-exertion and then got "C" in climbing and "D" in running.

The eagle was a problem child and was disciplined severely. In the climbing class he beat all the others to the top of the tree, but insisted on using his own way to get there.

At the end of the year, the queer abnormal eel that could swim exceedingly well and also run, climb and fly a little had the highest average and was valedictorian.

The prairie dogs stayed out of school and fought the tax levy because the administration would not add digging and burrowing to the curriculum. They apprenticed their children to a badger and later joined the groundhogs and gophers to start a successful private school.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the teacher's role in effective pupil adjustment?
2. What factors within the school setting contribute to the effective adjustment of pupils or detract from it?
3. How can the school adjust to the child?
4. What behavioral manifestations can the teacher use as indicators of adjustment or maladjustment and individual differences?
5. What evaluational instruments and techniques can the teacher utilize for identifying children with adjustment problems?
6. How may a teacher enlist the cooperation of parents in furthering the child's adjustment to school?
7. How may the teacher interact effectively with other school personnel in helping pupils to make a more effective adjustment to school?

Discussion

I. Why attempt to understand the child?

The teacher who knows more about his pupils and is sensitive to their needs and interests has more influential and effective relationships with a greater number than does the teacher whose major concern is the subject matter. (Bush)

Other studies have indicated that increased understanding of children's behavior and modification of classroom procedures based on that understanding enhanced teacher and learner effectiveness. (Blackham)

II. Some factors which have a bearing on a child's adjustment to school.

A. The amount of success or failure which the pupil experiences in school

The teacher should attempt to structure classroom situations and experiences in such a way that every child feels a modicum of success. If he is of low ability, then much of this success may have to come through non-academic activities.

"You will feel more secure as you consider new ways of providing for individual differences if you...consider the many ways in which you and your pupils are already meeting the problem. For example, you probably are careful to ask a slow child a question you feel sure he can answer, thus giving him confidence. You challenge a bright child with a brain-teaser. You draw out the shy child who has special knowledge or a special interest. You anticipate the trouble you think some children will have with a problem and explain things for their benefit. You tactfully avoid topics that might hurt the feelings of a child who belongs to a minority or who is upset by some condition in his home. You are careful to match chairs and desks to the children's heights, to give a child with poor vision a seat with a good light, and to give a hard-of-hearing child a seat near you." (Cutts and Moseley)

B. The degree of acceptance which he receives from his peers

This is the theme of another lesson presented in this syllabus.

C. The method of classroom discipline and control

The child may respond in a different manner to democratic and autocratic teaching methods, although this may not be universally true.

D. The child's experiential background in his home and community

E. The attitudes which he has developed as a result of his experiences and his interactions with significant persons in his life.

The above list is merely illustrative of factors which affect school adjustment and is not intended to be exhaustive.

III. What are some observable signs of maladjustment in children?

Following are some common signs of maladjustment which may indicate that the child needs help from the teacher. It should be noted that many of the things listed are not uncommon to school children. It is when these symptoms become excessive in number and persistent that a danger signal is evident:

A. Gets mad easily; is quarrelsome; fights often.
B. Is a bully; picks on those younger than himself.
C. Is defiant and resentful; rude; often "talks back" to teachers.
D. Rebels and refuses to go along with the decisions of the teacher; is difficult to manage.

E. Is non-cooperative in group situations; cannot work smoothly with others.
F. Rubs other children the wrong way; is regarded by them as a pest; is often left out of group situations.
G. Often lies, steals, or destroys property.
H. Is excessively quiet, withdrawn, shy.
I. Is timid, fearful, anxious; feelings are easily hurt.
J. Is overlooked by his peers; not actively disliked, but just unnoticed.
K. Spends a great deal of time in daydreaming or in fantasy.
L. Lets others push him around; does not stand up for himself.
M. Is considered too "goody-goody" by his peers.
N. Lacks self-confidence and is easily discouraged.
O. Is inattentive and/or indifferent.
P. Seems "lazy"; needs continual prodding to get his work done.
Q. Exhibits one or more of the following nervous mannerisms: thumb-sucking; nail-biting; stuttering and other speech problems; hyperactivitiy; nose-picking, making "mouth noises"; continual scratching; masturbating.
R. Achieves at a much lower level than his ability indicates he should.
S. Dislikes school intensely; is absent a great deal.
T. Is overly competitive; always has to be the winner.

If a child evidences several of these traits, or if any one of them is extremely troublesome, it would be wise for the teacher to give this problem special consideration or consult with others.

IV. What techniques can teachers use to identify problems?

There are a number of evaluational techniques and instruments which can be used to identify children with adjustmental problems. Some of the more formal methods might well be left to specialists with specific psychological training. The projective techniques such as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the Rorschach Ink Blot Test definitely would fall in this classification. Personality inventories should be used with a great deal of caution, if they are used at all by the classroom teacher. On the other hand, some of the more informal devices can be used to good advantage by the teacher. Sociometric techniques are very useful. These were discussed in Lesson #1, having to do with social acceptability. Other informal methods which the teacher will find helpful are observation and anecdotal records, analysis of the student's creative work, autobiographical material and other writings of the pupil; teacher-rating scales and checklists, and questionnaires and interviews. Limitations of space does not permit a complete discussion of each of these techniques. However, a brief suggestion or two in connection with each is given.

Observation and Anecdotal Records: Observation can be useful because it is a natural method which does not require extra classroom time. The students are usually unaware that the evaluation is being made and therefore are likely to behave in a typical manner. The limitations of observation are obvious. It can be very subjective. Prior mental sets may predispose the teacher to see what she expects to see. His attention may gravitate to the more obvious behavior rather than more subtle behavior which may be relatively more important. A concise record of incidents which occur will help to improve the objectivity of observation by decreasing some of the distortion that memory alone provides. When recording anecdotal information, the teacher should avoid negative statements and adjectives which would bias another person who might read the account. It should be written in a straightforward manner so that the incidents will speak for themselves rather than bear the private interpretation of the recorder. Users of anecdotal information should be aware that all human beings, even teachers, have their biases.

Observation of the Child's Creative Work-- While the typical teacher lacks the clinical training necessary to a detailed analysis of the child's creative endeavors, he can often pick up some clues which are helpful. A child who chooses to paint in dark, sombre colors (assuming that more attractive colors were available to him) may be depressed and unhappy. The child who draws a small human figure in one corner of a large sheet of paper may be anxious and inhibited, while the one whose drawings are not confined to the edges of the paper, but spill over onto the table,may have difficulty in conforming to adult expectations and abiding by limits which are set for him. The child who draws pictures of, or writes about, gruesome or hideous things (assuming it is not just an attention-getting device), may be indirectly making a plea for help.

Analysis of Autobiographical and Related Data -- Although autobiographics and personal data sheets often are overly factual and relatively uninspiring, at times they reveal a meaningful picture of the child's perceptions of himself, his family, and the world in general. Sentence completions and story completions also can indicate less directly much the same thing. In using materials of this type, the child's confidentiality should be respected.

Checklists and Rating Scales -- A checklist indicates only whether or not a given trait or behavior is present. A rating scale goes further than this by judging the degree to which it is present by putting it on a continuum. Checklists and ratings are highly susceptible to subjective influences such as the "halo effect" and the "generosity error", and are among the less reliable and valid evaluational techniques. Regardless of their limitations, they still can be useful, since some students respond honestly, or may use these devices as a means of asking for help.

Questionnaires and Interviews -- Questionnaires and interviews by the teacher probably would be relatively informal. They help to ascertain the attitudes and feelings of the students and may provide information that is helpful in understanding and working with the child.

V. What Are Some Factors to Consider in Enlisting the Cooperation of Parents in Furthering the Child's Adjustment?

It is important for the teacher to realize that although some parents are disinterested in or are actually hostile toward their children, the strong majority are interested in their children's welfare and will make great sacrifices for them. When their behavior is inimical to the child's adjustment, it more likely results from a lack of knowledge or thoughtlessness rather than representing a deliberate attempt to harm the child. Some parents require only a suggestion or two in order to modify their behavior in a way that will further the child's adjustment. Others may be so emotionally bound-up with their own needs that they have little strength to give the child. Needless to say, an approach to the parent must be made in a very tactful way. When possible, the teacher would do well to have the principal or school psychologist conduct an interview with the parent in the case of the more serious situations. Interviews with the parents should be in the form of mutual "give and take" where the teacher comes to the conference as a learner and not just as a dispenser of advice and information.

VI. How Does the Teacher Enlist the Help of Specialists in the School?

When a child's adjustmental problems are so serious as to require help beyond that which the teacher alone can give, others must be consulted. The principal is the most obvious and most readily available source of help. Some teachers feel it is a sign of weakness to refer any problem to the principal or to a guidance person. Certainly there are teachers who run for help in situations which they should handle themselves. However, no teacher is expected to be able to solve all of the emotional and social problems of those in his charge. For that matter, there are problems so severe that no one will solve them. The principal is often regarded by students as a disciplinarian -- as the one who punishes you. While punishment is obviously necessary at times, more often the person who misbehaves is in need of counseling or re-education. This may be provided by the principal, at times, or the counselor or school psychologist may bring their special skills into play to help the child make a more effective adjustment. The teacher should not be hesitant to refer children who are having learning or adjustmental problems which are more serious than he can solve.

VII. How Can Teachers Adjust Teaching Methods to Effectively Account for Individual Differences and Learning Problems?

After a careful assessment of individual learning problems by: 1) studying the nature of the errors a pupil makes in his oral and written work; 2) observing significant behavior as he interacts with others; 3) through the administration of standardized tests, when available, the teacher can better determine the unique learning deficiency of the child.

The next step involves either helping to adjust the child or adjusting the curriculum to harmonize with these individual differences , or both the adjustment of the child and the teaching methods. Random and continuous adjustments automatically are being made in the classroom by the teacher and the student in unnoticeable ways. However, experimental investigations have shown that more specific behavior leading to stated objectives can be achieved by the alert teacher who is made aware of the kinds of learning problems existent in the classroom.

An appendage to this syllabus will attempt to suggest what the teacher might do to make learning more feasible for children having various kinds of psychological and learning problems.

CASE STUDY

Name: ERVIN "D", JR.
Parent: Mrs. Doris "D"
Occupation: Waitress
Birthdate: November 4, 1955
Chron. Age: 13-1
School: Washington Junior High - Grade 7

I. What is the Problem?

Ervin has no close friends. When someone is friendly, he becomes overly friendly in return and loses their friendship. He tells far-fetched stories. He always wants to fight someone, but "chickens out" when it is time to fight. He tries to tease but makes other children angry instead. Ervin likes to answer questions but seldom answers correctly.

II. Information Which Might Be Helpful in Understanding the Problem

A. Data About the Family: Ervin's mother and father are divorced. He has one sister, two years younger than he. She seems to be making a good adjustment to school. Ervin makes negative comments about her which suggest that he may be jealous of her. Ervin's comments to the teacher indicate that he is left to fend for himself most of the time. He frequently has to cook his own meals. He is responsible for the safety of his sister while the mother works at the cafe.

B. Observations by Others: Ervin is very much overweight. The school nurse reports that she has talked to the mother about this problem, but has failed to receive much cooperation. The mother says he looks just like his father, who also is overweight, and she seems to feel that it is a hereditary problem about which not much can be done.

During a session with the school psychologist, Ervin made verbal comments which indicated ambivalent feelings about the father. On the one hand, he refers to him as a "fat slob" and on the other he expresses a wish to go and live with him and his second wife. They live in a different city.

In a conference involving the teacher, the principal, the mother, and the school psychologist, Mrs. "D" showed a quite defensive attitude. She said that Ervin was starved for attention but that she was busy working all the time and simply did not have any time to spend with him. She expressed the wish that there was someone else who would be willing to spend some time with him. Throughout the conference, it seemed clear that the mother resented Ervin and preferred not to have him around. It is very likely that he reminds her of Ervin, Sr.

The social worker made a visit to the "D" home. She reports that Mrs. "D" was outwardly friendly, but very guarded. The home, though modest, was clean and orderly, even though the mother had only about fifteen minutes' notice of the social worker's visit.

C. Test Data

Test	Date Given	Scores	
Iowa Test of Basic Skills	9-11-66	(Grade Norms)	
Vocabulary	(7th Gr.)	5.4	
Reading		3.9	
Language		5.7	
Work Study Skills		4.2	
Arithmetic		5.9	
California Test of Mental Maturity	9-14-66	L-IQ	90
		NL-IQ	86
		T-IQ	88

D. Sociometric Information: On a sociogram given last year by his sixth grade teacher, Ervin received no choices from others in his class as one they would like to sit by or work with on a committee assignment. On a "guess who" test, he received only two votes on positive type traits and 45 votes on negative traits. Choices which he received most often were the following:

1.	"Who interrupts most often?"	(5)
2.	"Who gets on your nerves?"	(9)
3.	"Who wastes too much time?"	(6)
4.	"Who teases too much?"	(5)
5.	"Who is the meanest?"	(7)
6.	"Who is a show-off?"	(5)

III. What is Causing the Problem?

Ervin's problem of being overweight is partially responsible for his lack of acceptance both at home and at school. He uses gratification of eating as a substitute for lack of affection in his life, and thus the overweight condition is worsening rather than being helped. A vicious cycle is set up in that the more he eats the fatter he becomes; the fatter he becomes, the more he is rejected. Ervin knows that he is not liked. His behavior fluctuates from "puppy dog" demonstrations of affection for other people to open displays of hostility. These kinds of behavior probably would occur more frequently if he dared to express them. He desperately wants to be accepted and to have friends, but is lacking in social skills. In spite of his bluster, Ervin has a very poor self-concept and does not see himself as a worthy or likeable person.

IV. How Can the Child be Helped?

A. Things the Teachers Might do to Help the Child: They should go out of their way to be friendly to him as he has a strong need for adult attention and approval. They should do everything possible to find areas of strength in Ervin and help him to develop some abilities and interests which will build his self-esteem and help him gain some status with his peers. Ervin should be assigned tasks which are within his ability to accomplish and sincere praise should be given when he satisfactorily completes assigned tasks.

B. Things Which Might be Discussed With the Parents: The mother should be given some concrete suggestions of how she can evidence acceptance of Ervin and should be encouraged to seek medical help for his overweight condition. If he could lose some weight, it probably would help his self-concept and his acceptance by others.

C. Other Approaches Which Might be Helpful: The principal should assign him to male teachers insofar as possible. For the present, he should be assigned to the remedial teacher (who, by the way, is a man) for help with his reading and in other academic areas. He craves male association and could profit a great deal from male models of identification. A man in the community who would serve as a "big brother" would be very helpful. Such a person could take him to ball games and fishing. In this community, almost everyone does some farming, either on the side or full time, and the community volunteer who is assigned could take him out to "help" mend fences, feed the animals, etc. Attempts might be made to involve him in the scouting program or other adult-supervised activities. Adults who work with him will have to be kind, firm, and patient if he is to be helped.

Ervin would profit from professional counseling or psychiatric help if this is available. The mental health clinic which comes into the community on a monthly basis might be a possibility.

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ADJUSTMENT WITH PEERS

What Is This Lesson About?

Positive peer relationship infers equality, healthy self-regard and a mature sense of one's own importance. Can youth in the twentieth century achieve the implied peer relationship? They can, given the right models at home, at school, and in the community. They can if their leaders -- parents, teachers, friends -- can wisely open doors to opportunity to the world of creative work and activity. Youth in the lower classes are somewhat handicapped and will overcome their handicaps only with help. They need help to identify their handicaps and the knowledge and skill for overcoming them.

Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of personality characteristics affect peer relationships positively? Negatively?
2. What influences do different kinds of behavior patterns have on adjustment in the classroom?
3. How does home training affect the development of social skills?
4. How does socio-economic and low social class level affect acceptance by one's peers?
5. How do peer relationships affect the dropout rate?

Discussion

1. Are Peer Relations Important?

A peer is an equal in rank or natural gift. Peer relationships include friendship, trust, mutual respect, deference, and such affiliative qualities as empathy, understanding and affection. Some children seem to have an inborn talent for positive peer relationships and making friends, while others seem to be unwilling or unable to get along with anyone. Peer group ties shift from moment to moment and are invested with an importance at one period of childhood more than at another. In high school, peer relationships are powerful determinants of behavior, influencing the manners, habits, dress, speech, and even the thoughts of youth.

A child's reaction to early home training and his experiences in school will affect his ability to make friends and achieve status in his group. Youth who have skill in communication -- particularly verbal -- tend to be more socially adept at school. A child develops verbal skills in a home where the parents talk with their children, where families get together for discussions of family, community, or world problems, where children are given an opportunity to express their feelings about the things they want to talk about.

Children of whom maturity in thought and deed is expected learn independence. They learn from experience and their mistakes. Self-confidence is the result of effort and accomplishment. The mature, self-confident person learns that if one set of actions does not work, another will, and he is not afraid to try new things. The zest he has for his activities and his willingness to be socially involved makes him a desirable peer associate who attracts others.

Children brought up in authoritarian homes where independence is suppressed, lack freedom to act. They become passive because they are afraid of failure, and compulsively do the same thing again and again, because they are afraid to innovate. Failing to learn, they rely on others, depend on their parents, teachers, or classmates, and wait to be told what to say or do. In their rebellious acts they mirror their frustration and unhappiness. The mainspring of action -- an inner sense of well-being and accomplishment -- is missing and they often turn to negative ways of attracting attention to themselves. They become selfish in their demands, unreasonable in their expectations, rude and abusive in their actions. Though these are bids for friendship, they repel rather than attract others.Finally, in desperation, some children may withdraw from the group or join with those whose satisfactions derive from failure or being different. Everyone needs someone to be with, to talk to, and to be encouraged and accepted by. Although parents and teachers may not approve of a child's choice of friends, it is an invariable rule that they will give them up only under protest or when they find someone to take their place. Losing friends, they may withdraw into illness or social isolation.

II. Why Do Students Behave As They Do?

Why do some children like school and others dislike it? Some work at learning and others resist learning? Educators dwell at length on problems of motivation which, according to the dictionary, is "the act or process of furnishing with an incentive or inducement to action ......motivation is the result of one's entire experience."

School achievement has been shown to be related to four factors of motivation:

1. Desire to learn and achieve -- Whether this desire is innate or socially acquired, the fact remains that students who have a desire to learn stay in school, while those who don't usually find a reason to drop out.
2. Identification with achievers --Youth whose models are parents and friends who are successful in school are themselves positively motivated to learn.
3. Group pressures and influences -- If the group (school class or peer group places high value on learning, then those belonging to the group will learn. When the whole community takes pride in the schools, and gives support to the schools and to the teachers, the students are more likely to want to attend school.
4. Satisfaction which comes from accomplishment in school.[1]

When school achievers have been compared to nonachievers, the achievers have been substantially higher in these four factors of motivation. They have had strong families who wanted them to study and learn and friends who have had career objectives calling for a basic knowledge and a minimum set of skills.

Parents almost universally want their children to associate with others who are honest, who have respect for the law and who have high moral standards, thinking that their children will emulate these good qualities. Studies have shown that similarly those children who keep the company of those who like to study and who enjoy cultural activities are likely to have similar interests.

acts in an angry manner, who speaks sharply to others, who argues, pushes and shoves, and who has an explosive, unreasonable temper and over-reacts in other ways in manifesting symptomatic behavior, is likely to be avoided by pupils whose esteem he seeks. The task for teachers and personnel workers is to understand the causes of asocial and antisocial acts and seek ways to change the behavior or to change or modify the institutions which create or provoke it.

A child withdraws when ridiculed or censured or when he lacks confidence to do whatever task he is assigned. A boy in kindergarten just sat and looked at the paper and crayons when asked to draw a picture. He was unable to make any mark on the paper. As this behavior continued and he seemed unusually fearful of other tasks, his parents were invited to a conference with the school psychologist. As the adults talked, the child walked timidly around the room, stopping to examine various objects. He would reach out to touch something, but hesitate and look at his parents to see if they were watching. He had been intimidated to the extent that he was unsure of himself and afraid to probe or experiment.

III. What Can Youth Learn At Home?

Wherever one met any of the Adams children, he was greeted courteously and with interest by them. They spoke in pleasant-toned voices, had smiles on their faces, and looked at the person they were speaking to. They always stopped to speak to elderly acquaintances, inquiring solicitously about their health; they greeted little children and listened to them. It seemed that these children had been born with all the social graces. Insight into their home life made it easy to understand their actions. The parents had taught the children from early childhood that they were a part of the family, and gave them responsibility to keep the family functioning smoothly. If the mother took a loaf of fresh bread to an elderly neighbor, she took the little children with her. When the family entertained, each child was given some task to do and made to feel important to the success of the party.

Social skills -- self-expression and communication, in particular -- need teaching in the home and at school from the time children are very young. Concomitant with the learning of these skills is the ability to mingle in groups, to entertain friends, to discuss beliefs, exchange ideas, and to engage in a wide variety of meaningful activities in and out of school.

IV. Are American Youth Class Conscious?

Although there are always exceptions, it can be stated that children from the lower socio-economic levels generally are not accepted by their peers in middle-class junior and senior high schools. Class by itself becomes an obstacle to friendships and peer relations among children. The habits, the beliefs, and even the dress of lower class students will differentiate these youth and alienate them from the others.

In the lower-class groups, the mother-child socialization process shows deprivation of meaning. Parents in the lower classes often lack verbal skills and are unable to communicate effectively with their children, who in turn, lack the same skills in dealing with their peers and in their work with teachers. Because of lack of education or special occupational skills, the work of working mothers is poorly paid, menial, often exhausting; leaving little energy for the mother to devote to the children and their needs. They do not listen to their children's conversations, build up their confidences by their praise, or take the time to teach their children self-reliance and independence in thought or deed.

Children from lower-class homes relate to authority instead of to reason; they become compliant, but not reflective; and they look for immediate punishment and rewards and show little interest in long-range objectives.

Because of their behavior, students from the lower classes are often rejected by their middle-class peers. Teachers, too, are often unable to relate to these students in a satisfactory manner, and the whole experience of school becomes an unrewarding and unpleasant experience.

V. Why Are There So Many Dropouts?

One of the major problems affecting the low socio-economic youth is the rate of dropouts from the educational system. With more mechanical means of doing manual labor, it becomes increasingly difficult for an unskilled worker to find employment. The supply of unskilled laborers greatly exceeds the demand in all sections of the country. This, in turn, creates joblessness, generates dissatisfaction, poverty, and general unrest.

It has been shown that dropouts are significantly related to:

1. Family understanding and acceptance.
2. Family encouragement for education and occupational plans.
3. Communication patterns within the home.
4. Joint leisure pattern within the family.
5. Feelings of happiness and satisfaction.[2]

In homes where these factors are stressed in a positive way, youth stay in school; they become dropouts where these factors are negatively reinforced.

It has been found that dropouts come from lower-class neighborhoods, from families who move excessively, from families who live in slum areas, public housing, and in areas with high delinquency rates.

Because of the seriousness of the dropout problem, many solutions are being discussed. Among the more promising solutions is the creation of more work-study programs, including some students 13 years of age.

Teachers also need help in learning to empathize with youth with lower class values. Many, because of their own background, are simply unable to understand or cope with the special needs of pupils in their classes from poor neighborhoods and single parent families.

Whitney Young, in recruiting for the National Urban League of which he is Executive Secretary, reports that when his appeal went out for workers he had many applicants from the Ivy League colleges, sons and daughters of wealthy, socially prominent families, who wanted to work to improve the conditions of the poor. Although they were highly motivated and had a real desire to do this work, almost all of them were unable to relate themselves to the problems of the poor which were so foreign to anything any of them had known. Having a need for willing workers, the Urban League designed a training program to show them how to understand and work with lower class clientele. Similarly, a training program for teachers might be considered. The training for the Head Start program is a step in this direction.

THE DOUGLAS "T" CASE

The Douglas "T" case is the exception that proves the rule. The Douglas family is not economically deprived; they are in the upper-middle class and are passionately devoted to education and the schools. Douglas is intellectually gifted; yet, at best, his school work is mediocre.

The case illustrates the relationship between a sense of well-being and motivation to learning. A child who is emotionally deprived, unsure of the affection of parents and family, lonely and without friends, is not a healthy child and may be unable to learn, or become meaningfully involved in school and community activities.

Identifying Information

Douglas "T", age fifteen in the ninth grade
Father, a University Professor
Mother, a housewife
Siblings -- six children younger than he

What is the Problem?

Douglas, who had an I.Q. of 162, was doing very mediocre work in all his classes. He seldom completed an assignment and often had wrong answers on assignments completed. Rather than study, he would clown around, causing a disturbance to others. Although he read a great deal on many subjects, his classroom assignments usually went undone. Because of his snobbishness and pedantic responses in which he was obviously trying to impress teachers and students, he had become socially isolated.

What is the Cause of the Problem?

Mr. "T", the father is a very busy man with his teaching and working toward his Ph.D. degree. Ironically, he thought of himself as one who was very helpful to others with their problems, but he did not fully realize the need his own family had for help. He had been invited to school before to discuss Douglas' problems but always had made excuses, mentioning the demands of his teaching and graduate work, civic commitments, and church responsibilities. Parenthetically, the teacher and school nurse who knew him personally felt that there was some justification for his excuses. They supported him, thus illustrating how a culture which values achievement and the efforts of its citizens in prestigious positions will be blinded to even more important issues.

The mother was exhausted, burdened with the care of seven children under the age of sixteen and the expectations of her husband that she also help with his many civic and church positions. Her own career had been interrupted by marriage, and she silently resented the children's and her husband's demands. She felt trapped in rearing the children without any help from their father, whom she seldom saw, and actually found herself in competition with the children for some of his affection and time. She felt guilty because of this.

Douglas, the oldest child, was asked to take responsibility for his younger brothers and sisters for which he was not ready. Because of his superior intelligence, his parents held him to adult standards at home and at school. Douglas read voraciously, probably to please and impress his father, whose affection and approval he desperately craved.

Mrs. "T" understood that Douglas was unhappy and seemed to be striving for status with his peers; nevertheless, she pushed him into adult roles because he was a precocious child. She needed help, and she had no one to turn to for her own dependency needs.

His teachers knew they were dealing with a very bright child, and were puzzled and frustrated because they could not motivate him to do the work other students were doing. They tried many ways to get him to respond, but to no avail.

Psychological Testing

Testing left little doubt about his potential, and that he was performing much lower than he was capable of. Rorschach tests showed that the ordinary things he encountered were rich in experience for him. For example, rocks were not just something to throw to make ripples in the lake but had unique characteristics and came from different geological ages. He used the vocabulary of social scientists and the descriptive nomenclature of the physical scientists.

In spite of his high potential, testing showed that he was highly distractible and that fantasied activity interrupted his performance. This resulted in a poor use of his potential in the classroom. He used intellectual mechanisms and fantasy for personal satisfaction, and as a consequence, became increasingly more withdrawn.

Other Data

Douglas was referred to the school counselor to whom he expressed the view that school was boring. With prompting, he admitted that he did not have any friends, that he was lonely, and that his family thought he had no need for childish play. He did not have any toys, he had not had time to play on the Little League baseball team during the summer, and while most of the boys his age were good swimmers, he had been swimming so few times he could barely make it across the pool.

(DO NOT BREAK THE SEAL ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO BY THE INSTRUCTOR)

Action That Was Taken on This Problem

The counselor determined that in his search for the approval of his classmates, Douglas used an intellectual approach to prove his superiority, which defeated his purposes. Basically, he wanted to enjoy a dependent relationship with his parents, but most of all he wanted status among his peers.

The homeroom teacher considered things she might do to help Douglas bridge the gulf between him and his classmates. She realized that the child's success would be determined by a close relationship with a significant adult, and that this relationship would be the mainspring to social, emotional, and intellectual growth. She found ways for him to express his scientific and intellectual interests. The social distance with his peers was bridged in part when the school's science display was given an "outstanding" rating at the science exhibit. Douglas had a major part in planning and building the display. This gave him a chance to work with classmates, to gain their esteem, and to share their satisfaction in the award received by the school.

During five conferences with the social worker, the mother was helped to express her feelings about her own problems, as well as her relationship with Douglas. She gained a sense of her own importance and found satisfaction in her everyday accomplishments. As a result, she was able to recognize that Douglas, regardless of his high intelligence, was only a child and was not ready for peer relationships with adults. As she understood some of his needs for her love and attention, she was able to fill these needs by relieving him of some of his duties in caring for the younger children. Fortunately, she was able to arrange for part-time nursery care for three of her children, giving her more time to devote to herself and to Douglas. She had failed him by expecting too much too soon, and by turning to him to satisfy her needs. Her equating intelligence with emotional and social maturity had not allowed him to be a child.

The father also came in to discuss his son, and actively entered into the plans to correct the difficulties. It was pointed out to him that Douglas saw him as powerful and strong, and that he tried to win his father's approval and gain his attention by reading books he recommended and talking to him about situations far beyond his years. The father learned what was needed in terms of a good father-son relationship, and was able to shift his perception of the problem from one of meeting educational needs to one that included personal contact and development to fully satisfy the boy's need for companionship.

When the father realized the extent of his son's feeling of inadequacy with boys his own age, he went swimming with Douglas, helping him to build skill in this sport.

This family received help over a three-month period. Although all their problems had not vanished at the end of this time, they all gained understanding and were adjusting their lives to meet individual and family needs. During this time, Douglas gave up much that was symptomatic in the classroom and found real satisfaction in his associations with his classmates, thus developing peer group standing. For the first time, he was elected to an office. His clowning and intellectualizing, his tendency to belittle others for self-enhancement, and to act superior were lessened.

At home, he found a more sympathetic audience from his parents who took time to listen to him, were less demanding of him, and gave him a chance to be one of the children. His response to treatment was salutary and his school performance showed a marked improvement.

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Lesson #4

HOME AND FAMILY

What is This Lesson About?

Each day the scientists are making important discoveries about people, their inter-relationships and the forces influencing human behavior. This lesson relates the attitudes of parents toward the schools and how these attitudes affect what their children think and do about school. The work of the social sicientist will be discussed, particularly their investigation of people's emotional needs and the inter-relationships between socio-economic factors, family functions, and the changing family structure.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are some factors in the parent-child relationships that affect the performances of children in school?
2. How are children influenced by maternal deprivation?
3. What effect does social class and socio-economic status have on the family?
4. How is our changing democracy and society affecting the family structure?

Discussion

1. What Factors in Parent-Child Relationships Affect the Students' Attitudes Toward School?

School attendance is affected by the attitudes of parents toward the schools. Brooks, Buri, Byrne, and Hudson[1] determined that twice as many children in the "above average attendance category" had parents whose attitude toward school was positive. Children whose parents' attitudes were negative were only average or below in school attendance.

For example, parents with strong positive feelings about their children attending school tended to show more concern about their children playing on the street when they should be in school and took action to get them there. In contrast, parents with less positive attitudes were more inclined to ignore the situation.

Research[2] suggests that with an increase in family income, home ownership, and a decrease in family size, the attendance rate improves significantly. Amount of income and number of persons living in the home are highly important considerations related to school attendance. Moderately strong considerations include number of years in the neighborhood, number of times the family has moved within a two-year period, and the status of home occupancy (own or rent a home).

Attitude of families toward education is significantly correlated in several important studies with an interest of students in school. Hyman[3] reports that wealthy and prosperous economic classes recommend a college education as essential more often than is done by lower economic classes. Ninety-one percent in the prosperous class apparently showed a preference for college for their children, in contrast to 68 percent with such a preference among the poor.

Youths' Views apparently parrallel those of their parents, because 74 percent of male youth from prosperous families between the ages of 14 and 20 emphasized the need for a college education, whereas only 42 percent of the lower class males seemed to feel the need for a college education. Numerous studies have fairly well established the fact that youth whose parents value education tend to place a similar value on its importance, in contrast to youths whose parents don't place an emphasis upon education.

II. Are Children Influenced by Maternal Deprivation?

Seay, Alexander, and Harlow[4], who studied the behavior of Rhesus monkeys, report the absence of normal maternal behavior in macaque monkeys. Motherless monkeys are those which had no real monkey mothers or peer interaction during the first thirteen months of their lives. Seven monkeys studied were wholly inadequate mothers, and their infants would have died if there had not been some intervention. They tended to ignore and withdraw from their babies even when the babies were screaming. Later, they ignored, rejected, or were physically abusive of their infants. Two of the mothers were so cruel as to cause the keepers to fear for the infants, and these infants died after an enforced period of separation from their mothers. However cruel and abusive the mothers were, the infants desperately tried to attach themselves to the bodies of their mothers.

Rather extensive research by such authorities as Spitz, Bowlby, Godfarb, Ribble, et al,[5] seems to indicate that human infants suffer from maternal deprivation as monkeys do. For example, in one study of 95 children, Spitz reports that depression was observed in almost 50 percent of the children. Recovery was rapid if the child was restored to its mother, but after three months of deprivation, recovery was rarely ever complete. Lack of ability to conceptualize was marked in children when they were institutionalized during the first nine months of their lives.

In a study of 91 children who were institutionalized, it was revealed that 39 had died before the age of two. Twenty could not dress themselves without assistance at the age of four. Fifteen had only very inadequately acquired habits of cleanliness, and fifteen had no sphincter control whatever. It seems generally agreed that maternal deprivation in young children is a serious matter with serious consequences.

It is generally agreed that the affectional needs of children and the socialization process is best developed in the home. In the changing American family, many functions formerly performed in the home now take place in the community. To some extent, as the American home changes and the parent-child relationship is altered, if not weakened, by these changes, it may be necessary for the community to take on even more of the functions of the home. For instance, mother surrogates do seem to provide children with many of their social and psychological needs. In studies at Wisconsin with Rhesus monkeys, little difference was noted between the kind of response the baby monkeys made to their own mothers and their responses to surrogate mothers. Infants cared for by a nurse, other member of the family, or other surrogate seem to thrive on this care.

Death and divorce result in trauma to children when the child experiences physical, emotional, and social deprivation from these losses. It has been substantially determined that Rhesus monkeys compensate for loss of maternal care and benefit greatly by peer contacts, and there can be little doubt that children who have experienced some deprivation at home will find compensation in the classroom with children and in teacher-pupil relationships.

Mothers who must depend on financial support from public welfare experience particularly serious problems. First of all, she is deviant because she is a member of the lower class in a society with middle-class values. Secondly, she is supported by public funds in a society which has the tradition of self-support. Thirdly, unless she has a husband who is incapacitated, she is the head of the house in a society which does not really accept a broken home arrangement. Finally, she is often less well educated, perhaps less intelligent, and at the same time may be lacking experience in home management.

III. What Effect Does Social Class and Socio-economic Status Have on the Family?

Poverty, slum conditions, and poor models at home and among peers adversely affect school attendance. Yet social scientists seem to think that even more subtle psychological explanations are needed to understand the behavior of some lower class families. They point out, for example, that some poor people are not accepted and always seem to fail. It is not because they are poor per se that they fail, for not all poor people fail. Not all are in a rut; some are upward mobile. It is not because poor people are dirty or dishonest or unfaithful in marriage (not all are) that they are not accepted. A more fundamental reason seems to be their unwillingness to take responsibility in their own behalf. They won't try to help themselves. In fact, they may have learned that it is better not to try. They appear to like their low status and don't want to succeed. Also, they lack initiative or have the belief they are destined to failure. Many believe they have no control over their destinies, that institutions and external organizations wield the power, and they are powerless to alter circumstances which affect their fate. They feel they are "other" directed. Education and vocational skills, the main tools to success, are viewed as being out of their reach.

Also, these poor seem to think differently about the present and the future. They look back and not ahead. They tend to be unable to postpone present gratifications for future gains.[6]

Morgan, David, Cohen and Brazer[7] report that education of heads of poor families is quite limited. For example, the heads of 64 percent of poor families in one study of 2800 families had less than a ninth grade education, in contrast to 32 percent for all families in the study. Three fifths of the heads of families who had fathers with less than nine grades of education exceeded that level themselves, but among the heads of poor families, two fifths did not exceed the level of education of their fathers. Actually, the heads of poor families failed to improve on the educational attainment of the previous generation. Lack of skill was characteristic of heads of poor families, and poor families evidence a lack of upward social mobility. Since education and skill are so much in demand in the market today, those who do not obtain training are highly vulnerable. There seems to be some indication of a transmission of patterns of failure from one generation to the next.

Of the 10.4 million poor families in the United States, there are many who are poor for involuntary reasons, the aged who are unable to work, disabled families, the non-white families who experience discrimination, and the farmers and migrant workers. However, more subtle forces also seem to be at work, including psychological dependency, lack of motivation, and lack of desire or will to work, or the feeling that it is no use to try.

We need to reach out to people in poverty. For example, in the schools, children who have ideas about the futility of their effort need to have enough success experiences to modify their pessimism and lack of hope. The attitude of teachers who are characteristically influenced by middle class values need to be modified to help children who won't try, and to create in them the idea that there is value in giving up something today to have something of greater worth tomorrow. Teachers can inculcate the hope that one is in control of his destiny and can bring about change.

The community, likewise, needs to plan more realistically in view of this psychology of despair. Social agencies should plan programs which will involve the poor and provide experiences for them that will be rewarding and satisfying. Assistance should be in amounts equal to realistic needs, rather than below the poverty line, which makes the struggle appear so hopeless. We need to develop responses of acceptance, rather than rejection.

Race and sex are both related to income. For instance, if one is non-white, his chances of being unemployed are just about doubled. In March, 1965, 4.0 percent of white males were unemployed in contrast to 8.1 percent of non-white males. The unemployment rates of white men 18 years of age and over who had completed three years of high school was 6.0 percent in 1955. In contrast, for non-white men at the same level of education the unemployment level was 12.1 percent. Similarly, for white women the unemploy ment rate was 7.1 percent and 15.1 percent if they were non-white.

In regards to income, of families with incomes of $3,000 or less per year, three out of five were headed by someone with a grade school education or less. In families whose annual income was $15,000, over half had been to college, and two out of five had completed their college education. Low income families who have less education also place less emphasis upon education and hence give less encouragement to their children to attend school and make use of the school program.

The number of children in the family relates to school attendance and family income. For example, in the U. S., families classified as poor have three to four children. Families not classified as poor have an average of two children. Families headed by females fare worse, for their income is less and their number of children is about the same. For instance, in March, 1965, the income for a family headed by a woman who worked full-time averaged almost $3,000 less than for a family in which the head of the family was the husband. The expense of rearing a family is essentially the same for the woman who is head of the household as it is for those families in which the man is the head of the household. Non-white families fared less well also. The median income of white males in 1963 was $4,816, in contrast to $2,444 for Negro males.[8]

IV. How Is Our Changing Democracy and Society Affecting the Family?

The family as a social institution has been changing rapidly in America. What are some of the consequences to children of these changes? What are the implications for the schools?

In the main, the extended family has been replaced by the nuclear family resulting in family isolation and loss of mutual aid among the members of the family. What opportunity is there today for children to leisurely visit with their grandparents, learn the social amenities from doting aunts, learn the art of conversation in parlors or swimming holes with rollicking cousins.

Non-performers in school are youth who haven't learned social skills, who can't speak effectively or deal with the emotional overtones resulting from frustration and stress. Questions are being raised about the ability of the family to function as a vehicle of control; e. g., witness the rise in crime and delinquency, number of broken homes, and the emotionally disturbed children. To achieve these and other goals a close interaction is needed between the home, the school, the neighborhood and other social institutions.

V. Vulnerability of One-Parent Families

A listing of the tasks of the one-parent family makes clear why they have problems. First, providing for the physical, emotional and social needs of the child is a full-time job for two parents. This is particularly difficult for a one-parent family where the parent is a woman, which is the case in most one-parent families. A mother who has to nurture children, run a household, and work full-time is spread thin. Further, because she often lacks technical skills, and competes unequally with males in the market place, her income is likely to be low.

Secondly, one parent may be a model for either girls or boys, but hardly for both. Identification of a child with the parent of the same sex is important to the psycho-social development of the child. The child in a one-parent family is not provided with the same variety of social experiences as is a child in a two-parent home.

Third, parents are a source of love and security for their children. One parent is likely to produce greater anxiety for the child, who may hesitate to handle conflict or express negative feelings for fear of losing an only love object.

Fourth, a single parent may make emotional demands on the child to satisfy dependency needs. This may result in role confusion and anxiety for the child. A child depends on adults, and to reverse roles may traumatize the youngster. Further, the child will have emotional demands which a one-parent family cannot meet. This easily can result in frustration and efforts for fulfillment in the community or at school in deviant ways.

A. What Can Be Done About One-Parent Families?

1. We need to realize that one-parent families present problems of the greatest magnitude for the rearing of children. Communities need to recognize these problems and to provide services focusing on the special needs of one-parent families.
2. Special effort needs to be made to provide opportunity for boys and girls to socialize and to work with adults who can provide social and psychological models. A program for girls similar to Big Brothers is an example of what may be needed for one-parent families.
3. The community needs to come to grips with its ambivalence about subsidizing one-parent families, particularly mothers of dependent children. Either we must accept the fact of the mother's need to be in the home or provide parental care for children when she is working full-time to support her family. We cannot have the mother in the home and on the job at the same time.
4. If the choice is to take the mother out of the home, then she needs to be trained to compete with men for income with which to rear her children. Low income and substandard arrangements do not serve either the welfare of the family or the community.
5. Provision for child care outside the home, and homemaker services, have been woefully lacking and should be greatly expanded and upgraded in quality. For instance, in 1965, only six percent of all

children under six were in day care programs. Day care programs, homemaking services, and other services which will support working mothers are seriously needed.

6. Perhaps of major importance is the need to do something about divorce, separation and desertion among lower socio-economic groups. Widespread involvement of educational, economic, and political systems is clearly indicated.[9]

More than a fourth of all families classified as poor are one-parent families. The tasks of one-parent families are such as to render them highly susceptible to problems. It is hardly conceivable that one parent can take the place of two, that one parent can be both provider, homemaker, and rear children to have the social skills and emotional stability they so much need. One-parent families need the help of the communicy to maintain a degree of integrity and carry out their basic functions as families.

THE MARY JANE "S" CASE

Identifying Information:

Mary Jane: Age 15, eighth grade
Mother: 45 years of age, three times divorced
Siblings: Half brothers and sisters; brother and sister who are married, younger brother and sister living at home.
Father: Left family when Mary Jane was six months old. He has never contributed to the support of the family. He is remarried, but has had no contact with Mary Jane since the divorce.

What Is the Problem?

Mary Jane's overall appearance is enough to make people shun her. She always is poorly groomed and never really clean. Her hair is long, scraggly and often oily, and her fingernails seem to be always in need of regular care. She has very few clothes and they are ill-fitting. Tight skirts and sweaters are her favorite, and the colors are unmatched. But it is really Mary Jane's actions that alienate her from her classmates and get her into hot water with her teachers. She is boisterous and adept at creating disturbances in the classroom, where she talks back and screams at the teachers. In the hallways and on the playground, she is noisy, picks fights with other girls, and speaks with disrespect of the teachers, using crude and abusive language. A favorite expression of hers is, "old Swenson" (the principal). She says she hates school, hates herself, and knows that everyone hates her. "I don't care" and "I wish I was dead" are phrases she frequently uses. On three occasions, she has attempted suicide by taking large quantities of aspirin, which has required the care of a physician.

Mary Jane is not without some redeeming qualities. She can talk to the school counselor about her problems, and in treatment keeps her appointments regularly with the therapist. She shows pride in work which receives the praise of her teachers. Although she overdoes it, she constantly champions the cause of the underdog. As a result of an identification with a blind student who appeared on television, she decided that she would make her career one of caring for the blind. Her protestations to the contrary, she does care what people think. This caring was brought into the service of the the therapist in modifying her behavior.

What is the Cause of the Problem?

Underneath her noisy, disturbing exterior, Mary Jane is an extremely insecure, lonely child. She longs for friends and acceptance in the group but has long since decided that she will never be one with the "in" crowd. She is the middle child in the family and the only one from her mother's second marriage. Her older brothers and her younger siblings are the children of first and third marriages. In the home, she is often expected to assume responsibility which is beyond her years. She prepares dinner for the family and cares for the younger children after school. Her mother, who only completed the eighth grade, works in a nursing home where the work is menial and the pay low. Actually, the mother neither has the training to make a decent living nor the patience to adequately care for her children.

The mother is punitive and rejecting toward Mary Jane and uses primitive "eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth" ways of enforcing obedience. For example, she gave Mary Jane a hairdryer for Christmas. Every time Mary Jane does something her mother doesn't like, however inconsequential, she will take the dryer away from her for weeks and even months at a time. Her punishment for misbehavior is overly severe and Mary Jane often finds herself "grounded" for a month at a time for minor infractions of rules. Physically strong, her mother will literally force compliance of her will. Mary Jane is actually afraid of her, and notwithstanding the poor relationship she has with her mother, Mary Jane loves her and is dependent upon her. She has a need for her mother's love and protection. Her mother realizes this and cruelly uses affection as a means of control. She senses the girl's need, but is so deprived herself she is unable to make appropriate responses.

Mary Jane wanted to see her father whom she fantasied would love her if he could know her. She had a recurring dream in which she was on a high concrete tower surrounded below by "ferocious animals." She felt secure and protected at the top of the tower and could look down with disdain on the fighting below. In discussing the dream she said she guessed the tower was her father who could protect her from the mean and hateful things she feared in her life.

She wrote a letter to her father which was intercepted by her mother who told her in the bitterest of terms that she was not to try to contact or see her father, mentioning the direct consequences if she disobeyed. Even though he had been out of their lives for longer than fourteen years, the mother has great hatred for him and still tried to punish him through Mary Jane. The mother has been unable to give the children what she lacks or to provide comfort when she is hurt. The therapist suggested that Mary Jane needed love and understanding to which the mother pathetically replied, "And so do I."

In school, Mary Jane's grades are poor. She is not doing her work, likely because she is preoccupied with whether others care for her or not. Much of her misconduct in school results from the fact that at home she has no outlet for pent-up emotions. To argue with or defy her mother would jeopardize the fine thread to which she so tenaciously holds. Teachers and her classmates often bear the brunt of Mary Jane's displaced aggression.

What Can Be Done About the Problem?

Mary Jane's problems have many causes and involved the following multi-faceted approach:

1. Recognition of the difficulty that one-parent families have, especially when the parent is a woman with a low-paying job involving menial labor.

2. Use of the counseling services of the school

    (a) as a go-between with the school and the home;

    (b) to provide teachers with information about the factors involved;

    (c) to negotiate referral with other community services.

3. The use of the school psychologist and social worker who worked with Mary Jane and her mother. Mary Jane saw a therapist once a month for six months (more frequent contacts were indicated but could not be provided). She was helped some to find satisfaction in socially-acceptable behavior.

4. The community helped some, but the help given was too little and was late in coming. Actually, the community has not come to grips with its ambivalence about working mothers.

5. The mother needed recreational outlets and friends. Unfortunately, she got neither. The children needed peer group status, a chance for social skill development, and above all, the assurance of being loved, wanted, and accepted. These needs for Mary Jane were slow in coming and were never fully met.

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Lesson #5

SELF-CONCEPT

What is This Lesson About?

The purpose of this lesson is to examine some of the factors that influence the development of a self-concept or self-image. The infancy and childhood periods receive primary consideration. Characteristics of adequate and inadequate personalities are discussed and the impact these characteristics have on the child's perceptions and functioning are examined. Ways teachers can help to foster positive self-perceptions are mentioned.

Questions

1. What are some of the factors that influence the development of self-concept?
2. What is the function of ego defense mechanism?
3. How are the child's perceptions of himself manifested in school performance?
4. How can teachers help to build an adequate self-concept?

I. What Are Some of the Factors That Influence the Development of Self-Concept?

Man's development into a personality is affected by his genetic endowments, his physical, social, and cultural environment and by his perceptions of self.

Genetics

Heredity determines our race, physical size, the color of our skin, hair, and eyes, etc. It affects family characteristics and individual differences. Chromosomes seemingly influence our rate of physical growth and development. To a considerable extent, we inherit our potential to think, feel, and to respond through unique neurological, skeletal, and muscular structures. Individual predispostions, temperaments and constitutional tendencies may be affected by genetic factors.

Environmental Factors

Climate and terrain have a marked effect upon cultures and social structures throughout the world; i.e., the Australian Aborigines, Eskimoes. Some cultures rely on grazing, others on farming, and still others on industry because of these two natural conditions. Customs, values, social institutions, etc. are determined by the socio-cultural environment which in turn affects the kinds of roles and interpersonal relationships we assume. One society may encourage individuality and aggressiveness, another may espouse cooperation and conformity.

Perceptions About the Self

Coleman expresses the view that the individual's self-image incorporates what he is really like (self-identification), his value as a person (self-evaluation), and his aspiration for growth and accomplishment (self-ideal). Self-identification starts with experiences in infancy and develops as the person grows to maturity. Initially, the infant may not differentiate between himself and others. As the infant's discriminatory ability increases he distinguishes himself from others. However, the focus of his interests and energies appear to be directed towards satisfying his own appetites and needs. As growth continues, he may identify with parents, other family members, neighbors, groups, community and nation.

Through the early initial experiences with the family, the child learns techniques whereby he can relate himself to other people.

According to Freud, the development of the individual is affected by the adequacy with which he meets his need for physical gratification as he moves through three different stages of development: Oral stage, anal stage, genital stage. During the oral stage, at least the first year of life, the infant's chief interest centers around his feedings which are satisfied by the process of sucking which ends the discomfort of hunger. The amount of cuddling and affection the child receives during this period presumably affect his adjustment and sense of well being.

The anal stage begins whenever adults initiate toilet training. The intent is to gain the child's cooperation by focusing on these bodily processes and toilet procedures. The manner in which toilet training is emphasized, and the emotions expressed, become very important to the child. This becomes a means of gaining approval, showing hostility, and asserting his independence. This provides a new type of relationship with adults and may have either positive or negative connotations.

The genital stage occurs between the second and third year. The child's interests turn to curiosity about his sex organs, their function, and how they differ from others. Acquaintance with sex is involved with the child's attempts to orient himself with his father as a man and his mother as a woman. Curiosity at this time should be considered as a normal phase of development. Rebuffs and taboos may adversely affect sex role identification.

The concept of the unconscious was one of Freud's major contributions. This concept may help to explain many different kinds of behavior for which an individual may be able to offer no rational explanation. This theory postulates the existence of areas in the personality that are not voluntarily controlled by the individual. Presumably, according to Freud's theory, behavior exhibited may stem from earlier childhood experiences. Most people would find it difficult to provide a logical explanation for many things they do.

Freud's theory provides some extremely interesting premises for looking at self-identification in early childhood. A number of other theorists, such as Eric Erickson, also look to childhood as the foundation for the individual's self-image.

Self-Evaluation

As the child achieves a clearer sense of self-identify, he begins to evaluate himself as superior or inferior, worthy or unworthy, adequate or inadequate. How an individual perceives himself, positively or negatively, depends on his experiences and relationships with others. This is especially true of his early years, since he had no other standard by which to measure himself than those supplied by parents and other significant adults in his immediate environment.

Perceptions of the self-gained during childhood as liked or unliked, wanted or unwanted, able or unable, worthy or unworthy, are not changed easily in later life. A student who perceives himself as inferior and a failure may have to be reinforced with many success experiences before he can begin to view himself in positive terms as adequate and successful. The child who has feelings of security and adequacy can take failure in stride and acknowledge shortcomings without it being a significant threat.

Self-Ideal

The concept of self-ideal provides for aspirations for growth and accomplishment within the individual. The attainment of the ideal self depends on the level of aspiration; that is, whether or not it is within the realm of reality. However, some theorists, such as Alfred Adler, express the view that there is an innate upward striving for superiority and that man may be motivated by fictional expectations for the future as much as by experiences of the past. The self-ideal may be uniquely individual or it may stem from identification with models.

II. What is the Function of Ego Defense Mechanisms?

As humans, we use many devices to protect ourselves from inner conflict and threats from others. When our method of coping with conflicts and frustration become stereotyped, it is called a behavioral mechanism or ego defense mechanism. Redl and Wattenberg[3] group these mechanisms into three major categories:

1. "those by which we ignore or overlook important facts,
2. those by which we escape or evade potentially unpleasant situations,
3. those by which we alter the form of the conflict by techniques of substitution or shift."

These mechanisms have some interesting characteristics in common. They may be seen in the actions of individuals or in the behavior of groups. At times, they all can be considered to be within the range of normal behavior. However, usually they reduce the effectiveness of the individual in his relationship with others and in his ability to cope with reality. If the mechanisms reach the point where they dominate the person's life, they may be a sign of mental illness.

III. How Are the Child's Perceptions of Himself Manifest in School Performance?

Snygg and Combs[2] identify characteristics of the adequate and inadequate personalities. Three major areas characterize the adequate person.

First, he perceives himself foremost in a generally positive way and in enhancing ways such as being liked, accepted, able, and of worth. Further, he sees himself as a person of dignity and integrity who has the capacity to achieve in the important aspects of life and to contribute to the world in which he lives.

Secondly, the adequate person is capable of accepting a broad spectrum of experiences and data and of integrating it into his perceptual field. The capacity to accept and organize experience afford him the opportunity of being objective, practical, and realistic about experiences in relationship to himself. This openness gives him a real advantage in learning situations and interpersonal relationships. The capacity of the individual to consider a range of alternatives and to cope with different kinds of experiences evidences the potential for more effective and satisfying behavior. The more accepting a person is, the more adequate he becomes.

Thirdly, the adequate person is capable of wide identification with others. No one lives in isolation. The adequate person attempts and achieves harmony between himself, family, society, and culture. In this sense, the self extends beyond the confines of the person. The human maturing process from infancy to adulthood suggests an increased identification and empathy with the external world. The more adequate a person becomes, the greater his identification will be with others.

The inadequate personality is characterized by traits that are almost the opposite to those of the adequate personality.

The inadequate person perceives himself in a fundamentally negative sense; such as, being unworthy, unwanted, unaccepted and unable in many regards. The more insignificant the self, the more overwhelming and threatening life's problems are apt to seem. Regardless of negative perceptions about the self, there is a "loud protest against the crushing of one's psychological bones," since it is natural for the self to maintain a favorable, enhancing picture of the self. As the person is threatened, there is a tendency to narrow the perceptual field and in other ways bring defense mechanisms more strongly into play. Remaining open and accepting puts the self in too vulnerable a postion and increases the risk of injury. This need to protect oneself may involve self-defensive measures, rejecting others, denying responsibility, postponing decisions and refusing to accept the data and experiences of reality at face value. The inadequate person has lost some of his objectivity and the world of reality is seen in a narrow restricted sense. A severe mental screening process is set up and only those external, reality factors which sustain the current self-concept are allowed to filter into the consciousness of the individual.

IV. What Can the Teacher Do to Help?

According to many psychologists, a significant problem for teachers and those who are working with problem children is to see things from the child's frame of reference. Illogical though the child's behavior may appear, there is some basis or motive for the behavior exhibited. The difficulty for teachers, psychologists, social workers and others working with the child is to gain insight into his unique way of perceiving life.

Adler expresses the view that this intuitive empathetic capacity can be developed in most individuals. The child's posture, mannerisms, ways of speaking, and other behavior patterns reveal the personality to the careful observer. In many ways, the person is unable to conceal his true self, since he does not understand his own forms of expression.

It is suggested that personnel engaged in a helping relationship listen to the child's explanation of the problem, and that they also maintain a positive, accepting, nonjudgmental posture towards the child. However, this stance should not be interpreted to mean that the person in the helping role is not genuine or honest in his relationship with the child. Honest, impartial feedback may be extremely helpful to the child if it is presented in a non-threatening manner. Oftentimes, in this kind of positive climate, alternative courses of action or ways of behaving can be examined more realistically than is possible under everyday conditions.

Obtaining some kind of commitment from the child to attempt different kinds of behavior that are within the realm of immediate attainment may be advisable. Providing praise or recognition for satisfactory performance is strongly advised if the desired behavior is to be continued.

Maslow[5] provides some interesting characteristics for psychologically healthy, self-actualizing people:

1. They have a more efficient perception of reality and a more comfortable relationship with it.
2. They have an attitude of acceptance of themselves, others and nature.
3. They experience feelings of spontaneity.
4. Their viewpoint is problem-centered.
5. They tend to be detached and desire privacy.
6. They tend to be autonomous and partially independent of their culture and environment.
7. They enjoy a continued freshness and appreciation.
8. They have strong emotional experiences, and a sense of brotherhood toward men.
9. They have deeper and more profound interpersonal relaitonships.
10. They are deeply democratic.
11. Their conduct is based on the means. They are not unethical to achieve an end.
12. They have an individualistic sense of humor.
13. They tend to have a sense of creativity. However, this does not imply artistic creativity necessarily.

THE BOBBY "T" CASE

What is the Problem?

Bobby Trillo is half way through the eleventh grade at Summerville High School. He was referred by the high school counselor and the Juvenile Court officer for being truant and running away from home. He spent one or two nights in the detention home in the county jail. He is a rather quiet, unassuming child and physically mature, age 16. His father was the minister of the local parish in a rather small farming community. Bobby was adopted at the age of five or six. He has been doing failing work in some classes at school, but according to his teachers he is approximately a "C" student in most of his subjects. His teachers have stated that he is quiet and somewhat withdrawn with some rebellious and resistive moods at times. It is apparent that he is from a different racial group than his adopted parents.

What is the Cause of the Problem?

Bobby has experienced some difficulties in conforming to the strict religious codes of his parents, especially those of his father. There have been disputations between the parents concerning methods of discipline in the home. Bobby has indicated to the counselor that he would like to live somewhere else and to be away rom his adopted mother. He stated that he felt that she never did love him. A meeting with the parents revealed the father was quite strict and rigid in his approach to handling Bobby. The family consists of two other children who are natural children to the Trillos and were born after Bobby was adopted. It was evident that more attention and affection had been showered on the natural children than on Bobby. It was also evident in speaking and meeting with both parents that there was little affection and communication between the parents. The father indicated definite lines between right and wrong and in other ways revealed a strict and rigid approach to behavior.

In further interviews with Bobby, he indicated that he remembered his real parents and that he had been left at the minister's door as a child for them to care for and that he had not seen his real parents since then. He did not know the names of his parents nor how many other children were in his family. He expressed the idea that his mother must have been like a mother cat that had too many kittens and she left some to die so that others could live. Bobby also indicated that he had been doing things against his father's wishes and against his religion for several years--such things as sneaking out of the bedroom window at night to be with other boys and to do the things he was forbidden to do--smoking and racing cars. He indicated that he had been living a double life with two standards and that finally it had caught up with him.

It was quite apparent from interviews with Bobby and his parents that his self-concept was extremely poor; that he viewed himself as being a worthless person, full of guilt and weak in character and that he felt he would never measure up to his father's expectations of him. The father indicated many times during the interviews that Bobby, who had opportunities and capabilities to be successful, would seem to make sure at the last moment that he would not succeed at any task he attempted. He gave many examples indicating this, that at the point when success was assured, Bobby would do something to make sure he failed, at least it seemed so to the father. This type of behavior was extremely difficult for the father to understand because he felt himself to be success-oriented and did not understand why Bobby would be so different.

Bobby obtained the following results from an individual intelligence test, the WAIS:

Verbal IQ	103
Performance IQ	102
Full Scale IQ	103

There were no indications of emotional disturbance in this test and it indicated that he had average ability. A Sentence Completion Test indicated a great deal of hostility toward parents and conflict between parents.

How Could the Child be Helped?

The school counselor, the school psychologist and the juvenile officer, conferred about the results of the tests and interviews held with Bobby and his parents. It was decided that if the parents were willing they should both be engaged in marriage or family counseling and if possible Bobby should be receiving individual therapy. The purpose in mind was to help him gain a more realistic and better self-concept.

Subsequent interviews with the parents helped the father to realize he may have been expecting too much from Bobby and that conditions in the home were helping to contribute to his seeming confusion about standards, mainly because the mother was permissive and the father was very restrictive. Their treatment of Bobby should be consistent and constant rather than intermittent. The latent hostility between Mr. & Mrs. Trillo was brought into the open and misunderstandings were discussed. Later, recommendations for improved communications between parents and the child were followed. The father was determined to do more with his son and to help him to feel that he belonged in the family.

In the weeks that followed, Bobby did fairly well but seemed to have relapses into periods of sluffing and cutting up with the boys which would invariably get him into difficulties with the juvenile authorities and with the school attendance officials. It was expected that Bobby would have difficulty in exercising self-control and that he would continue to have problems in measuring up to his full capacities. His life of near under-achievement and of seeming failure would be difficult to overcome, but changes were being made in the right direction at home. Teachers were approached in ways that they could help Bobby achieve, not only in self-control, but also in confidence in himself. When last reported, Bobby was experiencing fewer relapses into wayward behavior and was seemingly more able to recognize himself as a part of his total society. Vocational planning became a part of his thinking later in the year and the realization that he was not too bad looking when he was cleaned up stirred possible thoughts of dating with girls for the first time.

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* Required Readings

Lesson #6

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

What is This Lesson About?

The American culture expects the school not only to teach, but to play a central role in the socialization and character building processes. The school is the primary agency through which cultural norms and values are transmitted and is the organization which occupies about thirty hours of the child's time each week.

In this lesson, several facets of school organization and teacher-pupil relations will be reviewed. Income and social and minority group status will be correlated with pupil achievement and nonachievement.

Suggestions are made regarding the role and function of the school psychologist and social worker whose services are becoming increasingly helpful to the schools. The lesson concludes by noting some of the changes students must make if they are to meet future demands effectively.

Questions for Discussion:

1. How does the school and other organizations meet the needs of school-age children in a changing society?
2. What effect does social standing and level of income have on the relationship of the child in the school and in the community?
3. What are the effects of minority group status on the school child?
4. How can the Regional Child Study Service work with the schools to help meet the unique needs of youth?

Discussion:

I. Is the School to Blame?

Next to the family, the school is the most important organization within the community affecting the life and behavior of the child. In the main, the school is a constructive force which, for most children, results in progress toward desirable academic and social goals. However, some questions are raised about conditions in schools which adversely affect the performance of pupils. Various sanctions used by the school, record-keeping practices, and the perspectives of teachers themselves are examples of influences which may affect the performance of students positively or negatively!

Malperformance and underachievement receive considerable negative reinforcement, possibly on the assumption that these sanctions will curb or eliminate undesirable behavior. Low grades are the best examples of these kinds of sanctions. Poor grades serve notice to the student that his work is unsatisfactory. Too frequently, the grade is equated in the mind of the student with the teacher's esteem and is not viewed objectively by the pupil as a measurement of performance, or as a means of encouraging greater effort.

Sanctions resulting from poor grades may include reduction of privileges in school, ineligibility for class offices and positions, disqualification from extra-curricular activities, lower esteem of classmates, non-admission to a prestigious college, and disqualification from scholarships. Further, the pupil thus denied may be subject to the censure of parents who have their own methods of forcing greater effort and conformity. Rather than effecting positive change, unfortunately these sanctions often have the opposite effect, causing humiliation, feelings of rejection, a poor self-image and the conviction that there is no use trying.

School records may affect students adversely. Entries tend to be permanent and records follow the student year after year. Since they detail grades and academic information, in particular, they often document academic malperformance, featuring failure more than success. It is easier for a pupil to acquire a negative reputation than a positive one and it is hard for a pupil to live down the past. Grades and test scores sometimes influence teachers' decisions regarding pupils. One boy applied for the position of technician for the intercom system of the school in the eighth grade and was told that his grades the year before were below average, that he was not achieving according to his potential and, therefore, that this position was closed to him.

Teachers frequently regard motivation of students as crucial to academic success or failure. Quite generally, they have assumed that malperforming students are not motivated to achieve or are not committed to academic success, lack incentive to study, or do not try to learn. Recent research indicates that most malperformers are motivated and do have a commitment and a desire to learn, but lack skills and means, both social and academic, to succeed. Many teachers have indicated that the malperforming pupil is a challenge to the teacher's authority. Studies indicate that many malperforming and non-achieving students lack social skills needed for positive relationships with peers as well as with teachers. These studies show that pupils need help in asking for and using help and in accepting criticism. They need help to avoid spiraling conflict situations and the escalation of minor incidents into major crises. They need to learn to tolerate stress and to interpret teacher criticism,not as rejection and dislike, but as the teacher's way of helping. Teachers, school psychologists, and social workers concentrating on the school situation, and working with students to develop the social skills necessary to pupil-teacher interaction, frequently meet with success.

In general, patterns of success and failure in the school parallel performance in other social institutions. Thus, the nonachiever from the low socio-economic income group, and the individual who lacks social skill and academic attainment, also show less interest in church activities, in such character-building organizations as the Scouts, 4-H Clubs, and other organized recreational activities. The task of involving youth in the activities of these institutions is an ever-present one and calls for a critical re-examination of traditional programs to determine how satisfaction and personal involvement can become the common experience of all youth.

The juvenile courts, other correctional institutions, employment services, and the offices of public welfare institutions are well acquainted with the high relationship between school failure and social failure. These institutions often direct their attention to treatment. Their concern is not with fundamental causes of misbehavior and malperformance, and their efforts are often too little and too late. Broad programs of social reform, and reorganizations of social institutions directed to prevention and the causes of failure, are needed.

II. In Poverty's Vale

The Detroit riots of July, 1967 were by far the costliest and among the bloodiest in American history. More than five hundred million dollars in property was burned, stolen, or destroyed. In lost jobs, taxes, and production, the cost was put as high as one billion dollars. Forty lives were lost and untold numbers of injuries resulted from this debacle.

Many people believe that riots are symptomatic of deep-seated social unrest and disorganization. Writing for the Salt Lake Tribune, Sunday, July 30, J. A. Livingston said,

> "Riots are a result of bad housing, poor schools, individual and group maladjustment to modern technology, unemployment, and feeling of being unwanted, and squalor; in short, economic disparity, which, when it becomes extreme, brings on violence."

Jerome P. Cavanaugh, Mayor of Detroit, on "Meet the Press", Sunday, July 30, stated that of the nearly 5,000 persons arrested in connection with the riots, substantial numbers were not "involved" with jobs or education. They lived in the community but were not a part of it. They were the invisible poor, the faceless Americans.

Obviously, the problems of the Detroits and Newarks are multiple and complex. No easy answers will be found. Nevertheless, research is yielding important findings which could have significant consequences for our schools and communities.

Social class and the level of income of our people unmistakably differentiate children very early in their academic pursuits and tend to alienate them from the major middle class groups. Social isolation can be one of the most destructive influences in a child's life. Lower class youth more often experience the sting of ridicule and defeat which explains why these youth view school as being unpleasant and unrewarding and why they welcome the first opportunity to leave. Teachers who predominantly espouse middle-class values fail to identify the particular social needs of lower-class children and mistakenly interpret their behavior as a questioning of the school's authority. Culture sensitization training should be a requirement for teacher education and preparation.

The dropout rate suggests that we do not effectively reach students from the lower social classes and that, as a result, these students are not effectively involved in our school programs, either academically or in extra-curricular activities. Research has determined a close connection between school progress and intellectual ability. This is well-documented. Even a closer connection exists between social class and school progress. Studies show that the preponderance of youth in the upper classes complete high school and go on to college while in the lowest socio-economic groups, college attendance receives little patronage.

Difficulties of youth in school often begin in the first and second grade and continue through out the school careers. This difficulty frequently is painfully and unmistakenly associated with the lower-class identification and standing. Dropouts have been found to be notably unsuccessful in academic activities. In extra-curricular activities they may be equally unsuccessful. For example, dropouts seldom have held a school or class office. Not being involved in a leadership role correlates with low grades and poor academic achievement, and with social status. The major school activity of non-achievers is in attending athletic events and school dances. Policy of educational institutions restricting the extra-curricular activities of non-achievers should be examined in the light of a growing body of evidence suggesting negative results from these policies.

A variety of socio-economic factors in combination are found to determine success and failure in the classroom. Thus, pupils whose parents have been achievers in school also will achieve to a significantly high degree. Pupils whose homes are in the middle and upper income brackets who can finance the "extras" tend to succeed in school while students from economically deprived situations are to a significant extent school casualties.[2]

III. Little Brown Brother

Associated with low social and economic status are factors of race and ethnic grouping. Mexican-American children may start out on much the same level as white children as measured by I.Q. and achievement scores, but resemble those same children less the longer they remain in school. Negro youth have been found to have capacities closely resembling Anglo-Americans at the start and become increasingly dissimilar each passing year.

Actually, we are finding that the schools themselves are often poorly equipped to handle the special needs of minority groups. Teachers are often insensitive to their attitudes, beliefs and thinking. For instance, the Hopi, Zuni, and the Dakota, who stress mutual aid and cooperation, are incredulous when they see success of one child wrought at the expense of another, as in the case of children who are asked to compete and who are pitted one against another in our schools.[3] Illustrative of the competion is the spelling or arithmetic contest. The ten year old son of the writer was asked his views about such competition. "It's fine in arithmetic," he replied, "because I am one of the best." As a reader, however, he was not "one of the best" and he knew the pain of being embarrassed.

That teachers fail to understand Mexican-American children is widely supported by many studies. They regard assignment to a Mexican-American district as inferior, even punishment, as they do assignment to a Negro school. In their complaints of different ethnic groups, they reveal their ignorance of the children's cultural background. This failure to understand alienates teacher and child. Reports of Pueblo children regarding their teachers have been predominantly negative or neutral. For them there is not a favorable teacher-pupil relationship which is recognized as a dynamic aspect of learning in the elementary grades.

The Mexican-American youth who meets with understanding is fortunate. One student at a Western university testified, "I will never forget my teacher in the sixth grade. She encouraged me to want to make something of myself. She planted the vision of college. It was her encouragement that gave me the determination to keep trying when the odds were against me."

Mexican-American youth in significant numbers withdraw from school. For instance, in the Southwest, according to the census, 66.9 percent of 16 and 17 year old Mexican-Americans were in school as compared with 83.6 percent of Anglo-Americans of the same age. Mexican-Americans tend to leave school because they are embarrassed by their poor dress, by having little spending money, and because of their feelings of inadequacy resulting from low grades. They leave school when they are informed that they are too dumb to continue or when they can no longer tolerate the ridicule of peers.[4]

IV. Where There's a Will --

Assuming that malperformance results from an interaction of school condition and pupil's personality, the teacher, school psychologist and social worker should properly address themselves to the school condition as well as to the characteristics of the pupils who are nonachievers. Four main kinds of activities are suggested:

1. Work with pupils individually and in groups provides an opportunity for students to learn social and communication skills and to discover academic deficiencies. Students respond to group activities which focus on their need to develop social and academic skills, reading ability, knowledge of the fundamentals of grammar and language and communication skills which frequently are associated with school failure and lack of success. As academic and social skills are acquired, students will respond favorably to the school situation and use the learning experience to a better advantage.

2. Mediation, a role for the teacher, social worker and the psychologist, has been found to be an effective aid to the performance of pupils. Mediation can provide information exchange, joint planning about handling individuals, and a chance for the school and the family to coordinate their efforts.

3. Psychologists and social workers can be used as consultants to school personnel where attention is directed to the learner and to the school situation. Change in school policy and procedure, along with some modification in teacher perspective, has resulted from this kind of an approach.

4. Finally, the counselor, social worker and psychologist can serve as intermediaries to families and agencies in the community. The aim is to aid families with problems which impinge upon school performance. An indirect objective for purposes of modifying social institutions and developing needed programs and services is community planning.

V. How Are Today's Students Going to be Affected by Changing Technological Economic and Societal Factors?

History records the dramatic, almost cataclysmic effect of the industrial revolution on the families, social groups, and nations. Today, changes are taking place faster than at any time in history. Complex machines and computers are replacing men on the work market. However, while physical plant and equipment are replacing men, the value and importance of human resources is receiving increasing recognition. Emerging underdeveloped nations especially are faced with the problem of developing their human resources. The calibre and training of human resource is a decisive factor in the progress of any country.

As some vocations are becoming obsolete, others are emerging. Occupational trends evidence an increased demand for technical, scientific, and service occupations and a decreased demand for unskilled and agrarian workers. The need for the highly skilled and trained will increase in most occupational fields; there will be literally no demand for the minimally trained.

Automation is having a great impact on production technologies. However, the greatest impact will be on intellectual and cultural life. If predictions are realized, future generations will have considerably more leisure time. The school and community can play an important part in educationg the individual to use leisure time effectively and engage in a variety of recreational pursuits and hobbies. The emphasis should be on activities that stress individual participation and enjoyment rather than competitive spectator recreational activities.

There is a continuing population movement from rural to urban centers. Most students educated in rural schools will be required to move to urban centers to obtain employment.

As educators, we should ask ourselves, "Are we adequately training students to adjust to the coming technological changes and to make necessary social and personal adjustments?"

THE HELEN "P" CASE

Identifying Information

Helen "P", age 16, is in the tenth grade. She has two older sisters, ages 17 and 19, and two younger brothers, ages 12 and 10. Her mother is 40 and her father is 43. For the past two years, the father has been a patient in the State Mental Hospital. Prior to his commitment, he operated, rather unsuccessfully, a small neighborhood grocery store. Except for an occasional day's work at housecleaning, the mother has no occupation outside the small rented house they call home. The family income is from public welfare assistance and Aid to Families With Dependent Children (AFDC).

What is the Problem?

Helen has an I.Q. of 110 but gets along very poorly in school. About three days a week she arrives at school from one to two hours late, missing her geometry class and often her English class. She daydreams much of the time, and seldom gets involved in either academic or social activities of the group. She is not popular with her classmates, since she lacks verbal and social skills needed to get along with students and teachers. She usually is one of the last to be chosen for sports events in physical education. She is extremely overweight and moves about slowly and awkwardly. Her indifferent attitude toward schoolwork, and part-time absence, cause her to receive poor grades.

Although generally quiet and withdrawn, she occasionally becomes bossy and belligerent. One day after she had misspelled an easy word in a spelling game, she pushed the books, papers and pencils off the desk of the student who had correctly spelled the word. The teacher asked her to pick up the things and Helen refused. Then the teacher walked to Helen's desk and pushed all her things onto the floor.

She is behind in her homework assignments that require reference to an encyclopedia. Her family does not have any reference books. Her study hall time is spent in daydreaming. She seldom finishes each day's assigned work and is often unprepared for her classes since she receives little encouragement from home to do her work. Helen has become resigned to failure.

Since she is so lacking in social graces and skill, other students are made to look good at her expense. This makes her afraid to respond, and she remains quiet and aloof as if she were saying, "If I don't try, I can't fail."

What is Causing the Problem?

Helen has several counts against her so far as social status is concerned. Her parents are Greek, a minority group in her community; her father is in a mental hospital; and the family is on welfare. Her home is inadequate for the size of the family, and the mother is an indifferent housekeeper. All these give her a feeling of inadequacy among her friends. All members of the family are overweight, which stems from a diet of low-cost starchy foods not balanced by good nutrition. Also, they eat snacks between meals to satisfy their feelings of dissatisfaction and loneliness.

Helen stays up late to watch TV (which the neighbors feel is a luxury that people on welfare should not have); so she is too tired in the morning to get to school on time.

The mother, too, sleeps late, letting the children get off to school as best they can by themselves, fixing their own breakfast. On the days Helen does get to school on time, she always goes without eating.

The oldest sister, age 19, dropped out of high school in her junior year "because I didn't have the right kind of clothes to wear, and I didn't have any friends." The next sister, age 17, is experiencing difficulties in school, is often absent, and is receiving poor grades, although her I.Q. is 105. She, too, feels she is a social misfit, wishes for better clothes and a boyfriend. She is conscious of her weight problem but is unable to diet more than a few days at a time.

The two younger brothers are beginning to reach the age where social status and clothes are important to them. They have been making good grades in school, learning and achieving with other members of the class. However, school records show that the girls were adequate students in the lower grades, but became nonachievers as they grew older and status symbols became important factors in their relationships with other students.

School definitely is not a satisfying experience for Helen. The teachers send home negative reports as to her scholastic performance and behavior, and the mother, who sees her own failure as a mother mirrored in her daughter, punishes her for her malperformance and misconduct. Helen has no skill or standing in the school where good grades are rewards for good performance.

(DO NOT BREAK THE SEAL ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO BY THE INSTRUCTOR).

DISCUSSION: "How Can the Child be Helped?"

How Can the Child be Helped?

With money from a private fund, the school established a "Breakfast Club" for children who were coming to school without breakfast. They provided a simple but nourishing meal in pleasant surroundings before school. Helen was invited to this group, and immediately began attending, thus eliminating her late start in the mornings. The school nurse conducted a health class for those who were overweight, teaching them nutrition and motivating them to choose the right diet. Although it is realized that this is not too effective because the mother is still the one who buys and plans the main diet, it is somewhat helpful in motivating the youngsters to want to lose weight which they can do by cutting out the high-calorie in-between meal and TV snacks.

The homeroom teacher was made aware of the total problem Helen faced, and through her greater understanding was able to respond to the girl's needs. The teachers were helped to use grades, not to enforce compliance to norms and to punish, but to encourage the child to do better.

The school social worker instituted some group therapy sessions in which a small group of students met together regularly once a week. In the group were several students having difficulties similar to Helen's, and also several of the class leaders. It was reassuring to Helen to hear the leaders tell of their fears and embarrassments in different situations, showing that they were not always as confident as they appeared. As the group became more secure with each other, it was not long before Helen was able to talk about her problems and accept the suggestions and criticisms of the group.

One of the effective ways she was helped to verbalize her feelings was through the use of role-playing. This gave her an involvement with the group and an opportunity to express her feelings in an impersonal way. In this small group, all youngsters were given a chance to learn communication skills and to socialize.

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*Required Readings

Lesson #7

MOTIVATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

What is This Lesson About?

Motivation may be the single most important factor affecting the student's performance. Often a central problem in education is not so much teaching a new skill, but finding out means to encourage the learner to use and sharpen skills already learned. Further, the problem of initial learning is often a matter of creating a desire to learn or to change rather than a central concern about how learning or change will take place. The following text will serve as an introduction into some of those concepts that may help classroom teachers productively use motivation.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is motivation?
2. What creates motivated behavior?
3. How can we change motives in people?
4. How is understanding motivation important to the classroom teacher?

Discussion

I. What is Motivation?

The number of different activities engaged in by humans is indeed amazing. Each of us does a number of different things during every day. To others observing us, some of the behavior is very predictable while a smaller segment of it is much less predictable. Let us take, for example, the behavior of a school-aged child. He arises in the morning and completes his toilet. He then eats breakfast and walks to school. While at school, he does some reading, art work, spelling, arithmetic, story listening, outdoor play, eating, and perhaps fights, engages in fantasy, and sleeps. At times during the day, the child's behavior seems motivated by biological needs. At other times, the behavior is more obviously shaped by the culture of the community in which he lives. However, we can say that all of the behavior has certain elements in common; in each case the child is doing something, even if it is only sleeping. We also can see, if we look in a less than cursory manner, that each behavior seems to be directed toward some goal. This points out the two essential attributes of motivated behavior: 1) It energizes the organism and 2) it directs behavior toward some goal.

When an individual chooses some course of action over other courses of action, we assume that it is because it appears for some reason to be more related toward some goal that the individual desires. The child who sleeps, instead of listening to the quite delightful story the teacher is reading, obviously has some strong need that is being met. If he is tired enough, it is likely that nothing the teacher can do will change the sleeping behavior. However, at times the teacher is able to change the behavior by calling attention to the child. Thereafter, he may remain awake to avoid ridicule. Perhaps she moves on to some activity or story in which he is more interested. In any case, we can assume that the behavior in which we are engaged is that behavior which appears to offer us the greatest opportunity to achieve some goal that we immediately desire.

What then is meant when we use the term motivation? Motivation is really an assumption about how people work. The assumption is that whenever we are doing something it is because there are working inside us biological and/or psychological conditions that lead us to behave so as to attain a desired goal that will in some way satisfy us. The desired goal may be momentary or lasting in nature. We can assume that all behavior is motivated and if we could create the proper conditions in people, we can move their behavior toward socially desirable goals.

II. What Creates Motivated Behavior?

If we were able to look at the behavior of a vast number of people from very different cultures during any one day, we would see a good deal of similarity and a good deal of diversity in their behavior. The similarity likely would be due to behaviors that appear to have a rather direct biological basis. For example, the vast majority of our group would eat, but what they would eat would vary widely. Adults in our culture scarcely would savor the tea and rancid yak butter concoction of the Tibetan or the blubber diet of the Eskimo. It is very possible that they, in turn, would not appreciate black coffee with no cream, or green salad with lemon juice. The diversity would be due to the shaping of the behavior by the culture.

Motivators usually are listed in two major classifications. The first group can be termed biological in origin. Motives in this class are those that work toward tension reduction. We are hungry and are hunger-motivated until we eat. We are thirsty and we channel our energies toward obtaining liquids until our thirst is satisfied..

The second major class is related to motives that are social in origin. This class is far more varied than are behaviors that appear more biologically related. However, they do have certain aspects in common; the behaviors all appear to be approved of or rewarded in the particular culture in which they appear, as evidenced by the acceptance of different forms of dress in our culture and the keeping of taboos in primitive societies.

A further breakdown of elements related to motivation has been made by Abraham Maslow in his theory of motivation. Maslow believes that needs (the internal presence of a motive) can be divided into five major classifications: (1) physiological needs, (2) safety needs, (3) belongingness and love needs, (4) esteem needs, and (5) self-actualization needs. Maslow further believes in what he terms the "hierarchy of prepotency" of these needs. That is, the first mentioned needs are more basic than those that appear afterwards. In order for a person to become motivated by self-actualization needs, he must have the other four classes of needs reasonably satisfied. We probably would conclude that the school might have some duty with regard to all types of needs that Maslow lists. However, it is likely true that the primary duties of the school are related to number five -- self-actualization. Here, according to Maslow, the need is to become that which one is capable of becoming and enlarge one's abilities and capacities. One must, nonetheless, realize that in order for the school to become a place where self-actualization can, in part, take place, teachers first must concern themselves with the satisfaction of lower-need categories. The younger the child, the more obvious the requirement to look at all need aspects before attempting to teach. This suggests that, as teachers, we should attend more to physiological, cultural, familia, and other needs that affect the child's performance in the classroom. Such knowledge should help us to better understand the student and may provide insight into approaches that may be used to motivate different students.

III. How Can We Change Motives in People?

There is little doubt that young children can be changed. At least some of the mechanisms for change are known to all parents. We know that if someone is punished for a particular behavior the chance of that behavior reoccurring becomes less, unless the behavior itself is intrinsically rewarding. Perhaps even less thought of, but certainly more beneficial and utilizable, is the idea that behavior that is rewarded will tend to occur more frequently. Very related to the reward and punishment, but yet different from either, is the concept of identification. It is assumed that if a good emotional relationship exists between parent and child, the child comes to wish to emulate the parents and do those things which the parents desire. Much of the behavior that children develop is not consciously encouraged by systematic applications of reward and punishment. Rather, the child sees behavior, has some respect or admiration for those exhibiting the behavior, and comes to produce equivalent forms of the behavior himself. Rewards, punishments, and identification can be utilized by teachers to change motives.

A program that has particular application to education is one developed by the then Assistant Superintendent of Schools in the Bannecker School District of St. Louis. Here Dr. Samuel Sheppard, working with a group of underprivileged Negro children, was able in about a seven-year period to show striking improvements in scholastic achievement, school attendance, and attitudes toward schools. His approach was titled by him, "operation motivation." He utilized success-oriented slogans that were given wide visability and distribution, personal contact with parents and students, indications of the financial rewards that come through furthered education, success stories told personally by successful Negroes with whom the students could identify, and other less stressed mechanisms. It appears that he was able to alter substantially the motivational structure of a considerable number of children and parents in his district.

One of the most ambitious and fascinating research projects going on in psychology today is being conducted by David McClelland in India in an attempt to change the motive structure of a segment of that population. McClelland is interested in encouraging more of the businessmen in that nation to develop what he terms "achievement motivation." Some experimental studies conducted prior to this time have convinced him that such an ambitious endeavor may yield results. Although the project is not in a stage that it can yet be fully evaluated, the results seem promising and McClelland has taken the time to formally conceptualize some of his thinking with regard to changing motives. In 1965, he developed twelve general principles that he felt were important in creating motive changes. Space will not permit an adequate discussion of them, but they will be listed and should be read and then meditated upon by the reader. (Note: If time permits, possibly a pertinent study can be presented in this regard).

1. The more reasons an individual has in advance to believe that he can, will, or should develop a motive, the more the educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.
2. The more an individual perceives that developing a motive is consistent with the demands of reality (and reason), the more the educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.
3. The more thoroughly an individual develops and clearly conceptualizes the associative network defining the motive, the more likely he is to develop the motive.
4. The more an individual can link the newly developed network to related action, the more the change in both thought and action is likely to occur and endure.
5. The more an individual can link the newly conceptualized association-action complex (or motive) to events in this everyday life, the more likely the motive complex is to influence his thoughts and actions in situations outside the training experience.
6. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement in the self-image, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.
7. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement on prevailing cultural values, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.
8. The more an individual commits himself to achieving concrete goals in life related to the newly formed motive, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.
9. The more an individual keeps a record of his progress toward achieving goals to which he is committed, the more the newly formed motive is likely to influence his future thought and actions.
10. Changes in motives are more likely to occur in an interpersonal atmosphere in which the individual feels warmly but honestly supported and respected by others as a person capable of guiding and directing his own future behavior.
11. Changes in motives are more likely to occur the more the setting dramatizes the importance of self-study and lifts it out of the routine of everyday life.
12. Changes in motives are more likely to occur and persist if the new motive is a sign of membership in a new reference group.

IV. How is Understanding Motivation Important to the Classroom Teacher?

All of us make value judgments every day. We believe that one thing is more important than another so we try to orient our path toward it or perhaps we attempt to orient another in whom we are interested toward what we consider is a desirable goal. Perhaps all education can be regarded as such an attempt. If a student is applying himself to the demands of the classroom, the teacher feels a sense of well-being and feels a pride of accomplishment. If the student is not doing these things which are characteristic of the good student, the teacher feels a sense of disappointment and perhaps has real feelings of frustration and anger. At such times, it is often difficult to see into the situation and attempt to understand why the other person is behaving in a way that seems contrary to the demands of reality, and contrary to his own best interests. An analysis of the motives that must be operating upon him and how they can be altered is often helpful.

Good learning situations are stimulating, warm, and pose minimal threat. If the child likes the teacher, and the teacher can be a source of rewards, and knows what to reward, much can be accomplished toward motivating educational behavior. Further than this, the propositions advanced by McClelland offer many implications for the interested educator.

THE CASE OF GEORGE "D"

George "D" is a very normal looking eighth grade boy. He never has been a particular problem in school, but at the present time a number of his teachers are becoming somewhat concerned about him. He is a chronic daydreamer. He is polite and well mannered and appears to try to stay attentive in class when he is called upon or his daydreaming is pointed out. However, in a relatively short period of time, he is back in his supposed world of fantasy. His lack of involvement in his school work shows up in other ways. He doesn't get assignments in on time and frequently doesn't get them in at all. He appears to be always behind in his work. However, on standardized achievement tests, George scores extremely well. He also tends to do quite well on classroom examinations, particularly when the questions are related to broad aspects of information and are not too highly specific.

George's family is a very tight-knit group. George is the oldest in the family. The family members seem to demonstrate a good deal of positive feeling toward each other. George is described as unusually considerate of his younger sister and brother. George's father is the assistant manager of the local bank. This is a position with a fair amount of status and responsibility. However, at times he seems somewhat concerned because he seems to have advanced as far as he can. The bank is associated with a larger chain and it is their policy to have all their managers college graduates. George's father is not a college graduate. He has told George repeatedly that he should try to make the most of his opportunities and that he wants to be sure that George graduates from college. The family appears to do a number of things together. They all are interested in the out-of-doors and they spend most of their weekends out with their camper and boat. The mother apparently enjoys the out-of-door recreational pattern as much as the other members of the family.

An interview was held with George regarding his scholastic achievement. He indicated that school was "O.K.", which seemed to be George's favorite expression.

George did become enthusiastic when discussing his rock collection. He apparently has a very excellent one and was eager to have the interviewer look at it. George has been very active in the Boy Scout organization. Although he just turned fourteen, he has been an Eagle Scout for some time, At the present time, his interest in scouting appears on the wane. He participates somewhat in troop activities, but indicated that he soon may stop going so much.

Test Data

1. On a recent sociogram given to his class, he had one person choose him. His choices were two class leaders and one fairly popular boy. They did not choose him on their choices. The impression of the teacher is that he is not really rejected; rather, just has no really close friends, perhaps due to his rather quiet and retiring nature.
2. Testing in the first grade on the California Test of Mental Maturity yielded a Non-Language IQ of 100, a Language IQ of 105, and a Total IQ of 102.
3. Testing in the fourth grade on the California Test of Mental Maturity yielded a Non-Language IQ of 107, a Language IQ of 115, and a Total IQ of 111.
4. Testing last week (8th grade) yielded a WISC Total IQ of 128 with a Verbal IQ of 133 and a Performance IQ of 118. George's lowest scores were in the Picture Arrangement and Picture Completion on the performance part of the test, and on the arithmetic and digit span on the verbal part of the test.

Matters to be Discussed With Teachers

What is Causing the Problem?

How Can the Child be Helped?

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Lesson #8

LEARNING AND CHANGE

What is This Lesson About?

Learning is perhaps the basic discipline in psychology. Psychology is conceived as a study of behavior and learning is the most central mechanism producing behavioral change. The problem of learning and behavioral change has been extensively studied by psychologists. It has been a subject matter for a great deal of theorizing. Today, the field of learning could be described as both the most complex and the most simple area in psychology. Some of the learning theories are very complex and intricate; however, most of what has been discovered in learning that has immediate, practical significance is simple and easily understood. It is hoped that the text that follows will provide the reader with an introduction into some of the most utilizable principles of learning.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Does all learning show behavioral change?
2. What is conditioning and how does it work?
3. How can the teacher apply learning principles?

Discussion:

I. Does all learning show behavioral change?

How do we know a student has learned the solution to a particular problem? The educator's answer to this question is the test. We know when we present him with the problem and he presents us with a solution. If we see that a student's transcript of credits includes Basic Algebra, and thereby assume that he knows Algebra, we sometimes are found in error. The test becomes a behavioral manifestation of learning and we often demand it as an indication of learning.

Psychologists also have become very concerned with objective behavior. Their early attempts to study how people learn, feel, and think, were quite abortive until they generally decided that more could be understood about man by studying behavior than by utilizing logic, introspection, or any other means. Learning in psychology has perhaps espoused the ideas and methods of behaviorism more than any other branch of psychology. Psychologists interested in learning have looked at the behavior and then attempted to find what external things in the environment could be manipulated to produce behavioral change. The emphasis has not been on changing the way the person "thinks," but on looking at what he does and how it is correlated with what has happened to him.

Accordingly, the vast majority of psychologists would indicate that all learning shows behavioral change. Studies in learning have been exclusively related to discovering under what kinds of conditions changes occur.

II. What is conditioning and how does it work?

Conditioning is a simple type of learning in which behavioral changes occur because of changes in the environment. The Russian Pavlov was the first to coin the phrase and he also did the first important basic work in the area. Pavlov, through his studies with the salivation of dogs, discovered that dogs could be made to manifest an old response in the presence of a stimulus that had not previously evoked that response. He produced the effect by the pairing of a stimulus which had not previously evoked the response with a stimulus which had in the past consistently evoked the response. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

Originally:

(UCS)	(UCR)
meat--	salivation
Meat here is called the unconditioned stimulus or the UCS.	Salivation here is called the unconditioned response or the UCR.

Later:

(CS)	(UCS)	(UCR)
metronome beating--------	meat--------------	salivation
The metronome beat is called the conditioned stimulus or the CS.	Presented a fraction of a second after the metronome.	

Finally:

(CS)	(CR)
metronome beating----------------------------	salivation

Pavlov discovered that in order for learning or conditioning to take place, the conditioned stimulus must come before the unconditioned stimulus, and later researchers discovered that the optimum time interval between the CS and the UCS was about one half a second. It has been suggested that the CS comes to be associated as a cue for a subsequent event to occur in the environment.

This type of Pavlovian or classical conditioning has been widely used to explain how we develop involuntary or emotional reactions to originally neutral stimuli. An early experiment by John Watson illustrates the process. Watson had a child (little Albert) reach out to hold a rat. Just before Albert reached the rat, Watson clashed a cymbal in the child's ear. Albert gradually came to cry whenever he saw the rat.

Another American psychologist, E. L. Thorndike, later worked a good deal on another form of conditioning which he termed instrumental conditioning. Since Thorndike's death, research in this area has been done by many American psychologists among whom the most notable is B. F. Skinner who prefers to call this type of conditioning "operant conditioning." Individuals working in this area tended to try to produce voluntary behavior which was new to the organism producing the behavior. They discovered that two relatively simple "laws" could be used to produce an amazing variety of behavior.
The first of these laws is that any behavior that results in a satisfying state of

affairs for the organism will tend to be repeated. Law number two is that any behavior that results in a painful or unsatisfying state of affairs for the organism will not be repeated and will tend to be avoided. The "laws" are so simple and obvious that it seems needless to state them. Nonetheless, when confronted with complex behavior, we sometimes neglect to use the simple but usually applicable formulations.

The relative effectiveness of rewards and punishment can be illustrated by an experiment by Hurlock reported by Sargent:

> She chose four groups of school children, equal in arithmetic ability. One group was praised before the class for doing excellent work. The second group was reproved severely for bad performance. The third was ignored, though it heard the other groups praised and reproved. In another room, the fourth group heard nothing. Striking results appeared. Both the praised and reproved groups immediately improved 35% to 40%. The ignored group improved only half as much. Later, the praised group climbed to a 79% improvement. The reproved and ignored groups fell off in performance. The isolated group lost slightly but not significantly throughout. Hurlock concluded that praise and reproof motivate about equally in the short run, but that over longer periods praise brings better results.

It is notable that this is a situation in which either rewards or punishments could be used. The implications for a wide number of situations and circumstances are obvious.

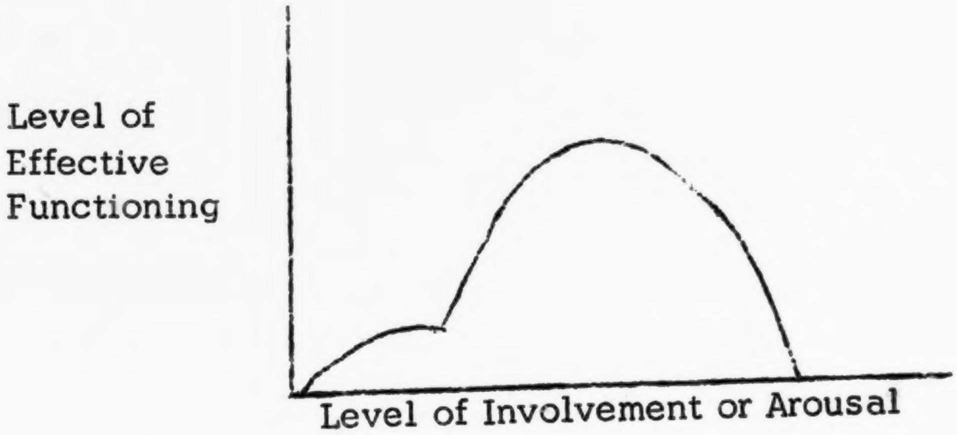
If one were to take both forms of conditioning and then attempt to pull out the basic principles that could be applied, one would see that both timing and reinforcement (rewards or punishments) are vital elements. For most types of conditioning that teachers would be interested in applying, the more immediate the reward after the desired response, the better the effect. It also is true that in order for effective learning to take place, a reward appears to be necessary, or at least very highly desirable. The effect on behavior of rewards that are not given every time the desired response occurs have been studied intensively by Skinner and his associates. Based upon his experiments, it generally can be assumed that the less predictable the reinforcement, the longer the amount of time the desired behavior will continue. Also, the greater the number or percentage of responses that are rewarded, the sooner the desired behavior will appear.

The relative effectiveness of punishment should be another area for contemplation for the careful teacher. There is little question that punishment will change behavior. However, most psychologists feel there are certain disadvantages that are associated with its use. Although punishment will produce a tendency for the individual to avoid the behavior punished, it will not alone produce desired behavior. Unless, of course, all behavioral alternatives are rigidly structured and only the desired behavior is not punished. Punishment usually does not encourage the creation of new ways of responding. Instead, its use frequently results in the behavioral constriction that is associated with fear. Where fear and behavioral constriction are desirable, and they sometimes are, punishment would be indicated. However, rewards are more consistent with our ethical system and appear to have other components to commend them.

Another area for consideration is the problem of what constitutes a reward and what constitutes a punishment. For most people, there are classes of rewards that work well, such as food,money, praise, etc. There also would be general classes of punishments that would be applicable to most, such as pain, ridicule, shame, guilt, etc. However, the relative potency of the reinforcer may depend upon the age and living situation of the individual, coupled with a number of individual idiosyncracies. Younger children are often motivated more by candy and immediate rewards than are older, more mature children. As the individual becomes older, he becomes more susceptible to social approval. However, the relative strength of a reinforcer depends upon the individual's current need state and his subjective impression of worth or magnitude of the reinforcement being offered.

One other factor that is related to personality and learning is the relative effects of motivational states upon change and learning. Much research suggests that the relation between learning and behavior change is a curvilinear one. In this situation, learning and change take place in the middle range of emotional involvement. Too great an emotional involvement yields a poor return for effort, as does too little an emotional involvement. This relationship is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2



III. How Can the Teacher Apply Learning Principles?

As a first step toward applying learning principles in helping to produce behavioral changes in young people, one should accept the premise that all behavior is modifiable. Modification can take place through appropriately timed reinforcement. One also should remember that change takes place best when the person is optimally motivated. These are simple rules but when systematically followed they can produce notable results.

Another interesting application of principales of learning can be made even before attempting any systematic reinforcement. Teachers might find it profitable and highly interesting to analyze their own classroom behavior to see what use they make of reinforcers, and what types of behavior they are actually reinforcing.

IV. Modification of Usual Lesson Approach

In lieu of a case study, a film presentation dealing with learning-theory approaches to dealing with problems will be presented. Two films are recommended: "Reinforcement Therapy" and "Controlling Behavior Through Reinforcement."

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Lesson #9

INTELLIGENCE AND INTELLIGENCE TESTING

What is This Lesson About?

Intelligence and the intelligence quotient concepts are two of the most important practical concepts in the educational field. Their use in education shows a long and distinguished past and a promising helpful future. However, current research and thinking regarding intelligence and intelligence testing is different from that of the past. The modern teacher must familiarize himself with data in this area where some degree of sophistication is a practical necessity. The following narrative presentation should serve both as a review and an introduction into some areas regarding intelligence testing with which even the well-informed teacher may not be familiar.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is intelligence?
2. How is intelligence measured?
3. How accurate are intelligence test scores?
4. What factors are related to the growth and development of intelligence?
5. How can intelligence test scores be helpful to the classroom teacher?

Discussion

I. What is Intelligence?

The term "intelligence" is used often by people, particularly those in education. When we use the term, we have some particular properties in mind that we wish to convey. Those to whom we communicate may not always understand the term in just the same way as do we, the communicators. One may believe that intelligence is a fixed capacity to learn and effectively utilize past experience. Another may believe that intelligence is a fluid characteristic that is greatly influenced by environmental events. Yet, in ordinary communication, these differences in conceptualization may not be commented on or clarified by parties using the word.

Psychologists, too, show differences in their use of the term. Lewis Terman, the author of the Stanford-Binet Test, conceptualizes intelligence differently than does David Wechsler, the author of the three Wechsler Tests of Intelligence. Nonetheless, both yield single intelligence scores which are interpreted in much the same way by psychologists using their tests. Other constructors of tests of abilities do not believe that a single score of intelligence adequately portrays the intellectual abilities of a person. Thurston felt that eight scores would be necessary. J. P. Guilford believes that at least one hundred and twenty different abilities are theoretically possible and feels that tests and scores should be devised for each of these.

Now as to our question, "What is intelligence?", intelligence is a term with a particular set of ideas behind it. Psychologists call such terms hypothetical constructs of intervening variables. Unless we are able to give everyone very similar experiences, either vicariously or directly, there will be difficulties in communicating with one another. The more an individual can amass accurate information related to the term intelligence, the more accurate his use of the term. In practical school use, most individuals would agree that intelligence is an important trait related to learning and utilizing information effectively, particularly in scholastic situations where the use of abstract symbolization is important. Yet, if the material that comes after this section is carefully read, contemplated, and then internalized, our understanding and use of this term will be changed and sharpened.

II. How is Intelligence Measured?

In order to understand how intelligence is measured, we should become briefly acquainted with several key persons in this area and their contributions. Alfred Binet, a French psychologist, is the father of mental measurement and the author of the first practical intelligence test. Binet devised his test using a rather simple, yet practical and solid basis. He reasoned that persons could be described in terms of their mental age in addition to their chronological age. Hence, if a person knew the answers to a set of questions that the average eight year old also knew, he could be described as having the mentality or rather the mental age of eight years. Accordingly, Binet obtained a set of tasks common to the experience of most children and tested a number of children. Later, he set up groups of tasks appropriate to the various mental age groups. These grouped tasks were the first practical test of intelligence. Later, a psychologist named Stern suggested that the implicit comparison of chronological age and mental age become explicit and formal. He suggested that intelligence be expressed as a ratio score with the following properties:

$$\frac{\text{Mental Age (M. A.)}}{\text{Chronological Age (C.A.)}} \quad \text{X } 100 = \text{Intelligence Quotient (I. Q.)}$$

Thus, the contributions of Binet and the minor contribution of Stern are the basis on which most intelligence tests of today are devised.

Lewis Terman took the Binet Tests to America, translated them, devised some new tasks of his own, tested a large population of American children and obtained age norms, and the Stanford-Binet test was born. Another American psychologist, David Wechsler, devised several tests which are the most commonly used individual tests of intelligence today. Wechsler made an original contribution to the I.Q. concept. He suggested that the I. Q. is really a way of comparing one child with another. He felt that instead of using the ratio of mental age to chronological age, it would be more applicable to show the relative standing of a child with regard to his chronological age mates. He suggested the concept of deviation I.Q. with a mean I.Q. score weighted to fall always at a score of one hundred with a standard deviation of fifteen points. Thus, a distribution of I.Q. scores would conform to a normal curve. This concept of I.Q. is now virtually the only one used on intelligence tests, including the Stanford-Binet Test. However, the standard deviations vary slightly from test to test. The score shows a child's relative standing on a normal curve and readily can be converted to a percentile score.

Today, there are a number of intelligence tests on the market. Many of these are group paper-pencil tests which can be administered by a classroom teacher. These tests can be very helpful and they are very economical to give. However, the group test does not yield either the accuracy or the wealth of information that can be obtained from an individual test.

Although the content of intelligence tests differ, all of them which are minimally adequate have certain characteristics in common: 1) they have been given to a large representative number of children and the results of the testing can be found in the test manual; 2) they use common tasks which also represent a wide variety of experiences; 3) they can be objectively scored and given in a standard, structured way for each person taking the test.

III. How Accurate Are the Scores?

There are a number of sources of error associated with testing. The first and perhaps the greatest source of error is the test itself. Tests always are given a label -- personality, intelligence, interests, achievement; the list could go on and on and become more detailed. Unfortunately, however, just labeling the test does not insure that the test really measures what the label suggests. If, in fact, it does not, no score from the test could be regarded as accurate. This aspect is usually discussed by psychologists under the general title of validity. Most commonly used intelligence tests appear to have good validity.

Another source of error is related to the actual test situation. At times, the person being tested is emotionally upset or for some reason unable to effectively concentrate on the demands of the test; if this is the case, the test score must be questioned. In some instances the examiner may not be competent to administer the test or to score it accurately. This, of course, yields an invalid score.

In some cases, the assumptions made about the persons taking the test may not be valid. For example, in intelligence testing, it is assumed that the test items are common tasks which represent a wide variety of experience. If, in fact, the test items are not tasks which are common to the child taking the test, he could not be expected to know the answer. Failure to know the answer to a question has quite a different interpretation when the opportunity for learning has not been presented, than it does when not known. This is a central problem when testing underprivileged children. Their low scores often are basically caused by a lack of learning opportunity. The test score still will be helpful in that it is a good indication of the background of experience that the child has had. I.Q. scores are reasonably accurate predictors of scholastic achievement in the immediate future. However, long-term prediction might be very inaccurate, particularly if some dynamic intervention takes place in the meantime.

The passing of time often will see very different scores for the same person. Scores will ordinarily be good predictors if the time between the date of the test adminstration and the academic behavior you wish to predict is not great. For young children, tests should be given every year.

As a person becomes older, his scores are more consistent. As a result, scores taken several years ago may be quite accurate for the person in his late teens or early twenties.

To give some concrete examples, scores obtained by repeated testings of the same subjects in the Berkeley Growth Study show that the correlation between scores taken at six will correlate about .8 with scores obtained at seven. (Correlations can run between 1.00, a perfect relationship, and .0, a complete lack of relationship). Scores taken at eighteen will correlate .6 with those taken at six. In spite of the correlations, significant differences in scores often appear. In the Berkeley group, the I.Q. score changes from age six to eighteen showed that about sixty percent of the group changed in I.Q. by 15 or more points; about thirty percent changed 20 or more points; about ten percent changed 30 or more points, and one individual changed almost 60 points.

In summary, we can say that I.Q. scores given to a child with relatively normal experiences by a competent administrator will show good short-term consistency, but significant changes in I.Q. scores occur in most people, particularly in children.

IV. What Factors Are Related to the Growth and Development of Intelligence?

Intelligence is related to a number of factors. The development of most personal attributes and characteristics are assumed to be affected by two major influences. The first is the effect of biological-genetic factors; the second the the effect of shaping by the environment usually termed "learning". Intelligence is a product of the interaction between these two factors.

There seems little doubt that I.Q. scores are significantly related to the I.Q. of parents. Most studies place the correlation obtained at between .4 and .5. The correlation between the I.Q. scores of siblings is about .5; whereas, for fraternal twins it is about .6 and for identical twins it is near .9.

Age produces significant changes in the growth of intelligence. For a group of children, the intelligence growth curve roughly parallels physical growth except that it shows no particular growth spurts as does physical growth in the adolescent and mid-juvenile periods. The rate of rapid increase in intelligence usually stops at about age sixteen. Increases after the age of sixteen apparently occur but have not been adequately studied.

Personality attributes appear related to scores on I.Q. tests in elementary school-age children. Children whose I.Q. scores are going up in this age period, as contrasted with children whose I.Q. scores are going down, appear to be more competitive, emotionally independent, interested in solving problems, and intrinsically motivated.

An adequate diet also appears necessary for the optimum development of intelligence. There seems ample evidence to suggest that a diet with at least minimum levels of protein and the B -Complex vitamin, thiamine are necessary to normal intellectual growth and functioning.

The last general factor of great importance is the stimulation provided by the home and community. Intelligence scores are related to the vocabulary level of the parents, the number of books in the home, the education of the parents, the supervision of the parents, income of the parents, the number and frequency of parent-child communications, and the class and occupation of the parents. Really adequate research describing just what kinds of experiences in the home are necessary for the proper development of intelligence is lacking to a considerable degree. However, it safely can be inferred that when such research is finally forthcoming, the role of language development and symbolization will prove to be highly significant, as will the role of motivational variables. Children who have adequate language skills and who are achievement-oriented generally will fare very well in our American educational system.

In summary, a number of factors are related to I.Q. scores. Some children seem contrary to the relationships that are found in large groups. However, these relationships may provide clues that will help in our attempts to aid in the development of particular children. The environmentally related aspects of the development of intelligence appear those most amenable to manipulation.

V. How Can Intelligence Test Scores be Helpful to the Classroom Teacher?

Intelligence test scores have been found to be significant in the prediction of reading readiness, prediction of school progress in subject-matter areas like arithmetic and reading, selection of children for special learning situations, and in career and educational guidance.

Children who score very well on intelligence tests usually are good achievers in the classroom, socially mature and adjusted, and usually successful in their lives. The inverse seems to be true with regard to the low scorer. However, there may be exceptions, which often concern the teacher.

The use of intelligence test scores in relation to the terms "underachiever" and "overachiever" is somewhat inappropriate, but points out some areas for consideration. Achievement is not due solely to the factors tapped on intelligence tests. Achievement in the classroom is related to a number of things such as motivation, work habits, emotional strain and many others. However, a score on an I.Q. test is highly related to academic success. When a student scores well on one of these tests and is still not doing well in the classroom, the teacher should ask himself the reasons why. Telling the student he should be doing better usually is not helpful and often is harmful. Identifying the conditions that seem to be related to inadequate achievement, and then finding a way to help the student make up the differences, will show the best results.

Student achievement at a level higher than the test score indicates is not, in and of itself, an indication of maladjustment. If no signs of maladjustment are apparent, there is evidence that some other helpful traits related to achievement have been cultivated; such as good study habits and positive attitude toward learning.

The low scorer on the test should be analyzed carefully. When one has a good idea of the causal factors, he can plan an educational program. Does the child have a very low score for what appears to be a constitutional reason? In such a case, certain levels of material, types of instruction and types of classes would be recommended. Are there glaring deficiencies in the child's background? What can you, the school, the community and the home do to remedy them?

I.Q. scores are one bit of information about a person. In combination with a number of other bits of information, they provide an important rib in understanding the framework of an individual's functioning. Development is not fixed; it is fluid. Classroom and environmental changes can be made for each learner to aid him in the achievement of a more optimum development and satisfying life.

THE JOSEPH "M" CASE

Joseph "M" is a fifteen year old boy of Mexican descent in the ninth grade. He has been referred to the school counselor by his homeroom teacher with an enthusiastic endorsement from the principal, Mr. Anderson. Joseph increasingly has been involved in behavior that is disruptive, both to his class and the school. His behavior for the current school year has been very aggressive. He has been physically abusive to some of the other children, mostly girls, but also to some of the smaller boys. At times, his language seems to be composed of four letter words with a number of gutter adjectives thrown in. Miss Murphy, his English teacher, has had a good deal of trouble with him and has sent him to the principal four different times. Typically, when he is a problem in the classroom, she isolates him in a corner of the room. When isolated, he causes less of a disturbance but really doesn't do anything constructive. His other teachers also have had some problems with him.

Mr. Anderson contacted the parents and they came to the school to talk to him and the school counselor. (The mother does not speak English very well). They seemed concerned, but their prevailing mood seemed to be predominantly apathetic. The "M" family has seven children; Joe is the fourth child. The younger children have not been a particular problem. A brother, two years older than Joe, has, and is, presenting considerable problems to the high school personnel. Joe's older sister, Mary, has not been a behavioral problem to date.

Prior to this year, Joe caused little difficulty in the classroom. His former teachers generally describe him as a quiet but rather poor student.

Test Data:

1.	6th Grade	Otis I.Q.	88
2.	9th Grade	WISC (just given)	
		Verbal IQ	76
		Performance IQ	106
		Full Scale	89

His lowest scores on the subtests were on information, arithmetic and vocabulary. His highest scores were on block design, object assembly, and picture completion.

3. On a sociogram taken by his homeroom teacher, after one month in school, Joe was chosen by one person in class, Fred Delgado.

4. Joe currently is reading just under the fourth grade level. The Gray Oral Reading Test places him at 3-8.

Matters to be Discussed by the Teacher:

I. What is Causing the Problem?

II. How Can the Child be Helped?

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Lesson #10

SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

What is This Lesson About?

The most obvious factors which can affect a child's school achievement, positively or negatively, are intelligence and motivation. Important as these factors are, however, they are only two of a number of influences which affect school performance. The purpose of this lesson is to identify factors important to school success, to emphasize things that the teacher can do to evaluate student progress, and to help children to perform optimally in the important achievement areas.

Questions for Discussion

1. How important is subject-matter achievement in relation to other considerations such as personality development, learning of social skills, and other non-academic objectives?
2. What factors are important to a child's achievement?
3. What do we mean by "underachievement" and "overachievement," and what are the main causes of each?
4. What methods are available for accurately assessing the child's level of achievement?
5. Once it has been determined that a child is low in academic areas, what methods can be used for diagnosing the specific strengths and weaknesses which are present?
6. In what ways can a pupil be helped to bring his level of achievement up to a higher standard?

Discussion

I. What factors should be considered important in addition to academic achievement?

With the changing conception of education and teaching, the teacher can no longer be satisfied with merely imparting facts and subject matter to pupils. He must be interested in the total well-being of each child, including such factors as emotional and social adjustment, attitude formations, and character development. Nonetheless, academic achievement must remain central in the teacher's responsibility and cannot justifiably be neglected. The teacher need not choose between teaching the child or "adjusting" him, but under effective teaching both kinds of learning can be facilitated concurrently.

A pupil must possess a certain degree of intelligence or "scholastic aptitude" in order for good achievement to be possible. On the other hand, high intellect alone will not lead to academic accomplishment. If parents, siblings, and peers do not regard schooling as important, it is not likely that the pupil himself will see it as something of worth. If he has a visual or hearing defect, or some other physical problem, his achievement may be depressed. If he is not accepted socially, or if he is struggling with personal problems, such as, inferiortty, guilt, or lack of self-confidence, he may not devote the attention or the energy requisite to academic accomplishment.

II. What is Meant by "Over-Achievement" and "Under-Achievement?"

"Under-achievement" and "over-achievement" are terms which are common in education today. These terms are often used too loosely. Properly used, they indicate how well a child's school achievement agrees with his intellectual ability. A mental age score is in many ways a better guide to what level of accomplishment we should expect of a child than is his actual chronological age. For example, John, age 10-3 (ten years and three months), has a reading age of 11-6 (i.e., he performs on a reading test like the average child 11 1/2 years of age). At first glance, it would appear that he is reading very well since he is more than a year ahead of the average child his age. But if we have the results of an intelligence test which shows his mental age to be 14-11 (indicating that he can reason and think like the average person who is almost 15 years of age) we are no longer as pleased with his reading score. Indications are that he has the intellectual ability to be doing even better in reading.

The concept of "underachievement' is relatively easy to understand; it suggests that a bright child, for some reason, fails to live up to an expected achievement level. The concept of "overachievement" is more difficult to see. One might logically raise the question, "How is it possible for a child to achieve more than he is capable of achieving?" Because of possible misunderstandings, it may be well to use the term "overachievement" very cautiously if it is to be used at all. What we are saying when we call John an "overachiever" is that he performs better in academic work than one would expect him to perform based on his measured intelligence. In other words, other students his age who do about as well as he on intelligence tests do not do as well as he does on achievement tests. It may be that John comes from a home where educational attainment is valued highly and where proper encouragement, without undue pressure, is given by parents and others, or there may be other fortuitous factors at work to produce higher level achievement than one would expect. It may be that for some reason his performance on the intelligence test on a particular day was hampered by a physical condition, his mental attitude or some other set of factors which caused the test to give too low an approximation of his "true" intellectual abilities. It would be important to investigate the causal factors of "overachievement" as well as those of "underachievement."

III. How is Achievement Measured?

The methods of accurately assessing a child's level of achievement would include standardized achievement tests, teacher-made tests, and informal methods of evaluation. Limitations of space will not permit a complete discussion of any one of these three methods, but a word or two should be said about each one.

Standardized Achievement Tests

Standardized achievement tests, because they must be appropriate to a wide diversity of classrooms, focus on basic skills such as reading or arithmetic or on broad conceptual areas which would tend to be common throughout the nation. The major value of the usual standardized test is that "norms" are given which allow for the comparison of a given individual or class with the performance of children the same age in the country as a whole. Age norms, previously mentioned, show this in age units. Grade norms,on the other hand, show the same thing in terms of grade units. For example, Sue, just entering the fourth grade, takes a standardized arithmetic test. In comparing her raw score with a table in the test manual, we find that her grade equivalent is 5.5, which means that she performed like the average child midway through the fifth grade. Percentile norms show level of performance by comparing the person to others in a given group. Fred's score on a standardized spelling test places him at the 60th percentile. This means that he performed better on the test than about 60% of those in the norm group with whom he was being compared. Standard score norms indicate how far above or below the mean (average) score a student is on the normal curve.

Classroom Tests

Classroom achievement tests, constructed by the teacher, are the major means of evaluating pupils' learning. The first step in constructing a test is to list or review the objectives (goals) of the particular part of the course that is to be assessed. Once these are clearly defined, one can select or construct test items which will measure them.

Test questions should be clearly and concisely stated. "Trick" or "catch" questions should be avoided. Essay tests and objective tests each have their own specific advantages. Essay tests can assess the pupil's ability to express himself and to organize and integrate material. Objective tests provide more accuracy of scoring and are more discriminating than essay tests.

Standardized Diagnostic Achievement Tests

When it has been determined that a child is having difficulty or is at a below-average level of achievement in a specific subject area, it is helpful to try to identify the specific problems or weaknesses involved. Sometimes what appears to be a total deficiency is caused by a relatively small number of identifiable factors. Too often as teachers we have been content just to check incorrect responses, compute the per cent correct, and hand the paper back to the student without trying to determine the specific areas where students need help. In addition to the survey type achievement tests discussed earlier, which identify the level on which a child is working by means of a norm score, there are also standardized diagnostic achievement tests. These tests sample various academic areas and help to pinpoint specific strengths and weaknesses. There are other informal ways of diagnosing specific weaknesses. For example, the teacher may find it helpful to have a child who is experiencing difficulty in arithmetic work through problems orally with the teacher listening.

IV. How Can the Teacher Help the Child to Achieve Optimally?

The methods of helping a child bring his achievement up to a more appropriate level would vary of course with the teacher, subject matter, and the nature of the child's problem. As a general statement, we can say that one cannot treat any problem effectively just by knowing the symptoms. We must strive to identify the basic causes which have produced the poor achievement and take specific corrective measures. If the problem centers around poor motivation, it is the teacher's task to somehow help the child to develop the desire to achieve by appealing to his own basic needs. Until the child himself perceives that his needs will be met by given learning activities, he is likely to be going through merely the motions of learning. Sometimes, a teacher can help to find reading materials which are directly pertinent to a child's interests or can otherwise structure learning experiences around interests. Naturally, the teacher also has the obligation to help the child to build new interest patterns as well, but the child's present interests can serve as a springboard to higher levels. If the attitudes of the pupil's parents and others in his community are not favorable to education, the teacher's problem of stimulating his learning becomes increasingly difficult.

If the child's achievement difficulties seem to center around sensory defects or other physical problems, the teacher may be in a position to alert the parents and recommend appropriate action. In case of emotional or social maladjustments of a serious nature which affect learning, referrals may be made to a counselor, school psychologist, social worker, psychiatrist, or specific agencies.

RALPH "C", JR. CASE

Child:	Ralph "C", Jr.	Age:	Thirteen
Parent:	Ralph "C", Sr.	Occupation:	Furniture Mover
School:	Creighton Junior High	Grade:	Eighth

Nature of Problem: Ralph was referred to the school psychologist by his teacher because of poor achievement, low academic motivation, and a negative attitude toward school.

Information Helpful in Understanding the Problem:

Test Date: Ralph attained a Verbal I.Q. of 95, a Performance I.Q. of 125, and a Full Scale I.Q. of 110 on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, indicating at least average intelligence. Yet, on the Wide Range Achievement Test his grade norm scores were 4.7 in reading, 4.1 in spelling, and 6.6 in arithmetic.

Ralph's responses to projective personality tests and his conversations with the school psychologist yielded a picture of a boy quite unmotivated in anything related to school or academic accomplishment. School is a boring and frustrating environment from which he would like to escape. Even with effort he has probably found it impossible to complete his reading assignments. He has developed the habit of avoiding any effort in school unless forced by the teacher.

Observations: Ralph's values appeared to center around excitement. He told the psychologist that he liked tobogganing much better than skiing because it was much more dangerous. Skiing was too "tame" for him. He recounted some hair-raising experiences which he and his buddies had had. He participated in the testing very willingly and talked freely with the examiner during and after the tests. He showed good concentration on tasks given to him. He evidenced no signs of extreme anxiety or of emotional maladjustment. The psychologist found him to be personable and likable.

Information About the Family: Ralph's father has shifted jobs quite frequently. The family has not remained in one place for more than a year or two. Ralph pictures his father and the family in general as the "outdoor type." The father hopes to take the whole family to Alaska -- to the northerly more rugged Arctic areas. Just what he plans to do occupationally is unclear in Ralph's mind. There are various suggestions that the father does not see school as being very important. Through identification with his father, Ralph has adopted a similar attitude. School and academic striving does not fit in well with the masculine role which he has continually set for himself.

What is the Cause of the Problem? Ralph is a boy of average to above-average intellectual capacity whose interest in academic achievement has been largely stifled by his home environment. There is little or no encouragement given by his parents. Relationships within the family seem good, with little friction among family members, and Ralph identifies readily with the father who sees school work as relatively unimportant. Even when Ralph tries to do his school work he cannot find success because his basic skills are from two to four years behind the average child his age.

(DO NOT BREAK THE SEAL ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO BY THE INSTRUCTOR)

DISCUSSION: How Can The Child Be Helped?

How Can the Child Be Helped?

1. It would seem that reading holds the main key to helping Ralph. His poor reading affects his performance in the total school program. It is recommended that he be given remedial reading, either in a class situation, or better still, on an individual basis. Fortunately, the remedial reading teacher in his school is a man. It is recommended that this teacher use reading materials which emphasize masculine interest, especially in areas in which Ralph expresses specific interest.

2. Success fosters success. It is likely that Ralph is unaware of his intellectual abilities and thinks of himself as "dumb". If he can begin to make gains in reading speed and comprehension, it probably will do much to establish some of the intrinsic motivation which is presently missing.

3. If Ralph recently has not had a thorough physical examination (especially with regard to vision) it would be important for this to be done, to see whether physical problems as well as motivational problems are blocking effective learning.

4. The school psychologist or a school social worker should work with the parents to try to get them to see the benefits of education.

DISCUSSION: "How Can The Child Be Helped?"

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Lesson #11

PHYSICAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

What is This Lesson About?

The physical growth of an individual is something which a teacher can influence little, if at all. However, he should realize the effects of physical development upon the personality and behavior of his students so that he will be better equipped to guide them. In this lesson we will consider the relationship between physical factors of the individual and his school adjustment and achievement.

Questions to be Discussed:

1. What effects do differences in physical growth and development have upon school adjustment?
2. What effects do differences in physical growth and development have upon school achievement?
3. What is the emotional impact of physical deformity or defects on the self-concept of an individual?
4. How do physical deformities or defects influence social acceptance in the school program?
5. What are the specific physical problems which the typical teacher may expect to meet in the classroom?
6. What specific action can be taken by the teacher to identify these problems and to correct them?

Discussion:

1. How Do Unusual Physical Characteristics Affect the Child?

In any classroom of children there are apt to be wide variations in size and in growth rates. Those who vary significantly from the group are in a vulnerable position with regard to effects upon their self-concepts and acceptance by their peers. When a boy is smaller or weaker than his peers, he is most likely to be adversely affected. He probably feels inferior and may withdraw from the group, particularly during activities requiring physical competition. A less likely, but common, alternative would be for him to overcompensate for his small size by becoming overly loud, overbearing, or otherwise obnoxious in an attempt to prove to himself and others that he is just as good as anyone else.

Girls who are diminutive in size are not as likely to experience the same difficulty. Indeed, their daintiness may prove to be an asset to their self-concepts and to their acceptance by others. Girls who are especially big or tall for their age may become self-conscious about their size and react in such a way as to interfere with good social adjustment. Girls who reach puberty early have a growth spurt which may make them taller than the boys their age. This, coupled with the development of secondary sex characteristics, such as development of the breasts, may cause considerable embarrassment for girls in the late elementary and early junior high school years.

As a general rule, however, children who develop early have an advantage over children whose maturational pattern is slow.

II. What Can the Teacher Do to Help the Child Adjust to Differences in Growth?

The teacher of children from about fifth grade on through the junior high years is likely to be faced with wide variations in physical size and development. While all of the children who differ significantly from the average for their group will not experience emotional problems, some will. The teacher would do well to educate children of this age to the fact that people have rapid growth rates at different times. The boy who reaches a rapid growth spurt much later than his peers may find himself passing them up in a year or two. The girl who has her growth spurt early, and is afraid she is turning into a giantess may find herself to be of only average height in middle or late adolescence. Teachers would do well to minimize the importance of size, and to avoid as much as possible activities in which size is a crucial element, especially when mixed groups are involved.

III. How is Attitude Affected by Growth Rate?

Differences in growth rates affect school achievement primarily in that they affect the pupil's self-confidence and attitudes about himself. A physical defect or deformity can of course exert a very damaging effect upon one's self-concept, especially while the self-concept is in a formative stage. The way the individual is treated by parents, siblings, and peers will of course exert a powerful influence upon the way he perceives himself. The way he perceives himself will, in turn, have a strong influence on the way others accept him. We are all aware of persons who have made outstanding contributions to society in the face of almost overpowering odds. We also see cases of individuals who use a relatively minor physical problem as an excuse for lack of accomplishment.

A physical defect or deformity affects one's acceptance by others, mainly in the early stages of the association. Once one becomes well acquainted with such an individual, his deformity is apt to diminish to relative unimportance provided that he has desirable qualities of character and temperament.

A person who has a strong self-concept and who has developed good social skills early in life and later acquires a physical defect usually can make an effective adjustment to the defect and continue to be happy and productive.

Children in an elementary school setting will often pick up cues from the teacher with regard to their acceptance of children in the class who are different. If a teacher is shocked, disgusted, or horrified by a physical defect or deformity there is a good chance that children in the class will acquire the same attitudes. If the teacher is accepting of all children and maintains a casual attitude toward differences, there is a good chance that children will model this behavior also.

IV. What Are Some Common Physical Problems and What Can Teachers Do About Them?

It may be helpful at this point to mention some of the specific physical problems a teacher might meet and to suggest ways in which he might identify and/or remediate these problems.

Visual Defects: Many visual defects go unrecognized and uncorrected for a long period of time. Approximately one third of the elementary children have a visual problem of one kind or another. It has become traditional to give visual screening tests, such as the Snellen Chart, to all children, the assumption being that by so doing children with visual problems will be clearly idenified. Unfortunately, this is not the case. The Snellen test measures only one aspect of visual functioning, and not the most crucial one at that. A far-sighted youngster may do very well on the chart, and yet he is apt to be more handicapped in reading than is the near-sighted child. A child may be unable to coordinate the eyes in order to read effectively. Better screening devices such as the telebinocular or the orthorater need to become more common in the school setting.

The observant teacher can help to locate children with visual problems by watching for such things as the position in which the child holds his book or physical indications such as red, itching, frequently watering eyes, squinting, etc. Where either these informal indications or the results of a visual test indicate the possibility of a problem, parents should be advised to take the child to an eye specialist for a complete examination.

Auditory Defects: Auditory problems are not as common as visual defects; about three per cent will need specialized help with hearing. But this still amounts to an average of about one child in every average sized classroom group. Inattentiveness, frequent asking for repetition of directions, body posture or close attention to the teacher's lips while she is talking are informal indicators that a hearing loss may be present. Informal tests such as the whisper test or the watch test can be used. The ideal method, of course, is to have all children in the school take an audiometer test. This is becoming quite common in the schools today.

Chronic Infections and Diseases: Infections of tonsils, teeth, or other parts of the body may sap a child's vitality and deprive him of the energy needed to stay alert and focus his attention on learning. Diseases such as heart trouble, diabetes, hepatitis, rheumatic fever, etc. generally reduce a child's vitality and limit the kind of activities in which he can engage. Disturbances or imbalances in the endocrine glands, such as a low thyroid condition, also may exert their effects. Advice of a physician should be followed or requested in certain cases, especially when students are temprarily ill, are recuperating or have chronic illnesses. A child who is not well likely will miss a great deal of school which will interfere with the continuity of learning. If the child is attending school but is partially incapacitated, he likely will be more sedentary and may evidence tendencies toward depression and irritability. The teacher should use judgment where the student is experiencing some kind of an illness and should temper assignments and scholastic expectations accordingly.

Brain Damage and Neurological Disorganization: Improper development of the brain or injury to the brain can cause problem behavior and poor achievement. These conditions can develop before, during, or after birth. Relatively little is known about the brain and how it functions in learning, but much work is being done in this area at the present time. This area is outside the domain of the regular classroom teacher, and where brain damage is suspected, the child should be referred to psychologically and/or medically trained personnel. There are specific teaching techniques which can be used with brain damaged children but such teaching requires specific training in special education programs.

Mixed Lateral Dominance: This condition is present when the preferred hand is on the opposite side of the body from the dominant eye. Opinions are mixed as to how seriously this condition affects learning, but it is true that a large proportion of severely retarded readers have mixed dominance.

Epilepsy: Fortunately for children afflicted with epileptic seizures, effective methods of controlling these seizures through medication have been discovered. Some persons with this malady have the condition so well controlled that there is little or no danger of a seizure occurring in school. In other cases, however, medical doctors have been unable to find any medication which is effective. Fortunately, today most teachers are able to cope with this as they would any physical problem, rather than treating the epileptic youngster as though he were possessed of evil spirits or insane. It would be well for parents to inform the child's teacher of this condition ahead of time even though it seems to be under medical control so that the teacher will not be caught off guard if a seizure should occur. The teacher should by all means remain calm and assure others in the class that it is just a type of disease and nothing which they need to fear. Mild seizures, petit mal, occur without any convulsions. The person having such a seizure may appear to be staring off into space and will not hear you. After a matter of seconds, or a minute, the seizure passes.

It should be noted that the physical problems discussed above are only representative rather than being an attempt to present an exhaustive list of physical problems.

THE NORMAN "J" CASE

Child:	Norman "J"	Age:	12
Parent:	Sam "J"	Occup:	Bank Teller
School:	Grant Jr. High	Grade:	7th

What is the Problem?

Norman was referred to the school counselor by one of his teachers, Mr. "C" primarily because of low achievement in relation to his estimated intellectual abilities, and also because of extreme dependency. Mr. "C" thought that Norman was very bright and would probably score up in the superior range of intelligence; yet his achievement was only average or slightly below.

Information Helpful in Understanding the Problem:

Test Data: The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) administered to Norman failed to verify the high intellectual ability suspected by his teacher. His verbal I.Q. was 115, his performance I.Q. was 100, and his full scale I.Q. was 109. The Wide Range Achievement Test supported the teacher's estimation by showing him to be close to grade level in reading but almost a full year behind grade level in the other academic areas. His responses on the personality tests given to him by the counselor and his responses while taking the tests reflected the same dependency and lack of confidence which had been noted by his teacher.

Observations of the Counselor and Others:

Norman had polio when in the first grade. He made a very good recovery but walks with a slight limp. His gym teacher reported that Norman used his limp as an excuse for avoiding physical activities. He did not want to play ball nor do any kind of athletic activity. When his class went on a field trip to the newspaper office, which was three blocks away from the school, he wanted Mr. "C" to take him in the car. His reaction to any type of task is to say, "I can't." Norman associates as little as possible with other students in his classes. He hangs around teachers and other adults and talks to them on a rather adult level. Some of his teachers thought that he did not like to associate with the other children his age because they did not offer him enough intellectual stimulation. His associations with adults and his adult mannerisms give him the appearance of being more intellectually capable than he really is. A more realistic reason for his avoiding other children appears to be a lack of social skills and a fear of the children.

Information About the Family:

The school social worker was asked to make a home visit. She reported that both parents, especially the mother, babys Norman a great deal. He is not required to mow the lawn nor do other physical tasks around home because he had polio. His mother speaks of him as though he were still ill.

What Caused the Problem?

Norman's low achievement seems to be largely due to his lack of self-confidence and feelings of inadequacy. He fails to apply himself vigorously to any task, either intellectual or physical. The over-protection given in the home since his illness appears to have hampered his development much more than the polio itself.

How Can the Child Be Helped?

1. The parents, especially the mother, must be helped to see how coddling behavior has caused over-dependency and lack of self-confidence in Norman. Mrs. "B", the social worker, has been well received in the home. She might be able to gradually change the parental attitudes and behavior that have been so emotionally crippling to Norman.

2. The teacher should structure Norman's experiences in the classroom so that he feels successful. Small successes at first can build up to larger successes later on. Some specific techniques will be suggested to his teachers by the counselor.

3. Norman needs help in developing social skills, Classroom activities which will involve him with other students, especially popular students, may help him to achieve status with his peers.

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Lesson #12

SUMMARY AND EVALUATION

This lesson will be devoted to a review of the previous lessons and may focus on areas of interest to the particular teacher inservice training group.

Post-Testing for Project Evaluation Purposes

Post-testing will be accomplished during the last hour of this session.

NOTE: If teachers want to discuss the results of this final test, special arrangements can be made for discussion on a group or individual basis with the Title III Staff once the tests have been corrected.

CASE STUDY

Teacher's Name Date

Child Birthdate

Parent or Guardian

Occupation of Parent or Guardian

School Grade

I. What is the problem (behavior observed)?

A. Information which may be helpful in understanding the problem:

1. Data about the family (attitude of parents, relationships within the family):

2. Observations by others (Principal, Psychologist, Social Worker, Nurse, etc.):

3. Test Data:

Test	Date Given	Score

4. Sociometric and other data__________

II. What is causing the problem? (current and/or historical factors)__________

III. How can the child be helped?

A. Things I might do to help the child:__________

B. What are the child's strengths on which to build?__________

C. How can you help the child use his strengths to better advantage?__________

D. Value of discussing the problems with parents:__________

E. Other approaches that might be helpful (referrals, environmental modification, etc.)

WORKSHEET FOR SOCIOMETRIC DATA

Teacher______________________________School______________ Class_____________

FIRST ADMINISTRATION					SECOND ADMINISTRATION *				
Name	Choice	Choice	Choice	Pts.	Choice	Choice	Choice	Pts.	Diff.

*The sociometric test may be administered a second time near the end of the course if advisable.

First Choice	3 points each
Second Choice	2 points each
Third Choice	1 point each

SOCIOGRAM